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1918

THE PEOPLE'S YEAR BOOK

FOR 1918.

AN ANNUAL OF USEFUL INFORMATION PREPARED BY
CO-OPERATIVE PRESS AGENCY.

FIRST YEAR OF PUBLICATION.

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JUN 29 1922

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Economics.

P39

1918

The People's Year Book.

PREFACE.

IT is not possible to compile a work of this character at present without being seriously affected and handicapped by war-time conditions. There are not the facilities there were prior to 1914 for obtaining up-to-date statistics, whilst many topical matters with which we should like to have dealt are now characterised by such frequent and rapid changes that they lose much of their use and value before they can be conveyed to the public through the medium of a year book. We have had, therefore, to omit features which would form a permanent asset to an annual volume like the one we now place before you, and hope to develop from year to year, especially as prices of printing materials approach a normal level.

We have always felt that a year book of helpful and essential information on co-operative and allied subjects was needed, and in our first effort we have to regret several omissions which war-time circumstances and regulations have compelled us to make. We trust to remedy this defect, however, in future.

In our first year of publication we were anxious to give an intelligent, but not too ponderous, survey of the co-operative activities of Europe, also in countries outside the Continent, and, although we have had to make important erasions with regard to the historical growth of the co-operative idea at home and abroad, we present a compilation of facts and figures on world-wide co-operation which we do not remember having been done before so comprehensively. In view of the intercommunication between countries being at present difficult and unreliable, and impossible in some cases, this has entailed considerable research in foreign newspapers and periodicals, particularly with regard to up-to-date figures.

But, whilst we have endeavoured (and hope to do more in subsequent editions) to provide information of a general style which may be useful to speakers, writers, members of public authorities and committees, also all seekers after facts, we have realised how much space could be occupied with the world activities of co-operation alone. The plan of co-operation that began at Rochdale has now extended and been established—in direct or modified forms—in nearly all the civilised nations of the earth, and a mere statistical annual record (bald and fleshless) would itself make up a very weighty and cumbersome volume.

Russian Co-operation

The Moscow Narodny Bank

(Central Co-operative Bank of Russia). Established 1912, for the purpose of rendering financial aid to Co-operative Societies of Russia. CAPITAL: Rbls. 10,000,000. HEAD OFFICE: Moscow. 12 Branches and Agencies in Russia. AGENCIES ABROAD: England, 83, Finsbury Pavement, London, E.C.2; United States, 309, Broadway, New York.

The Moscow Union of Consumers' Societies

(All-Russian Co-operative Wholesale Society). Established 1898. Number of affiliated Societies on January 1st, 1917—3,167. HEAD OFFICE: Moscow. The Union owns three flour mills, an oil seed crushing mill; three confectionery and three soap works; sorting and weighing and chemical works; tobacco, match, fruit drying, vegetable drying, and boot factories; a fish curing station and joinery. LONDON OFFICE: 30, Mincing Lane, E.C.3.

The

Union of the Siberian Creamery Association

Established 1908. HEAD OFFICE: Kurgan, Siberia. 21 Branch Offices in Western Siberia. The Union is engaged in the production and sale of Butter, Cheese (similar to Cheddar), as well as other agricultural commodities; it comprises 1,300 creameries and possesses 1,050 Co-operative Stores. London Representative: E. M. Yarkoff, 83, Finsbury Pavement, E.C.2.

“The Russian Co-operator”

(A Journal of Co-operative Unity). Published by J. V. Bubnoff and A. N. Balakshin, at 83, Finsbury Pavement, London, E.C.2. Annual subscription, 2/6 net, post free. Editorial Committee: J. Bubnoff, A. Balakshin, B. Crysins, E. Yarkoff, S. Hermer (A. Sonev), Prof. F. Hall, Henry May.

“The Co-operative Movement in Russia”

By J. V. Bubnoff. Price, 2/6 net, to be obtained at the offices of “The Russian Co-operator,” 83, Finsbury Pavement, London, E.C.2.

The People's Year Book.

We have, nevertheless, varied our pages with series of figures and concrete descriptions touching social, political, economic, industrial, and domestic affairs. Figures dealing with wages, prices, capital, production, consumption, labour, trade unionism, and a host of other kindred matters, including the industrial battlefield and the field of sport, are also encompassed.

We hope our compilation will meet with your approval as being informing and as a work of reference. For next year, to enlarge its usefulness, we shall welcome criticism and suggestions.

THE EDITOR.

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CALENDAR FOR 1918.

January.					February.					March.				
S	...	6	13	20 27	S	...	3	10	17 24	S	...	3	10	17 24 31
M	...	7	14	21 28	M	...	4	11	18 25	M	...	4	11	18 25 ...
Tu	1	8	15	22 29	Tu	...	5	12	19 26	Tu	...	5	12	19 26 ...
W	2	9	16	23 30	W	...	6	13	20 27	W	...	6	13	20 27 ...
Th	3	10	17	24 31	Th	...	7	14	21 28	Th	...	7	14	21 28 ...
F	4	11	18	25 ...	F	1	8	15	22 ...	F	1	8	15	22 29 ...
S	5	12	19	26 ...	S	2	9	16	23 ...	S	2	9	16	23 30 ...
April.					May.					June.				
S	...	7	14	21 28	S	...	5	12	19 26	S	...	2	9	16 23 30
M	1	8	15	22 29	M	...	6	13	20 27	M	...	3	10	17 24 ...
Tu	2	9	16	23 30	Tu	...	7	14	21 28	Tu	...	4	11	18 25 ...
W	3	10	17	24 ...	W	1	8	15	22 29	W	...	5	12	19 26 ...
Th	4	11	18	25 ...	Th	2	9	16	23 30	Th	...	6	13	20 27 ...
F	5	12	19	26 ...	F	3	10	17	24 31	F	...	7	14	21 28 ...
S	6	13	20	27 ...	S	4	11	18	25 ...	S	1	8	15	22 29 ...
July.					August.					September.				
S	...	7	14	21 28	S	...	4	11	18 25	S	1	8	15	22 29
M	1	8	15	22 29	M	...	5	12	19 26	M	2	9	16	23 30
Tu	2	9	16	23 30	Tu	...	6	13	20 27	Tu	3	10	17	24 ...
W	3	10	17	24 31	W	...	7	14	21 28	W	4	11	18	25 ...
Th	4	11	18	25 ...	Th	1	8	15	22 29	Th	5	12	19	26 ...
F	5	12	19	26 ...	F	2	9	16	23 30	F	6	13	20	27 ...
S	6	13	20	27 ...	S	3	10	17	24 31	S	7	14	21	28 ...
October.					November.					December.				
S	...	6	13	20 27	S	...	3	10	17 24	S	1	8	15	22 29
M	...	7	14	21 28	M	...	4	11	18 25	M	2	9	16	23 30
Tu	1	8	15	22 29	Tu	...	5	12	19 26	Tu	3	10	17	24 31
W	2	9	16	23 30	W	...	6	13	20 27	W	4	11	18	25 ...
Th	3	10	17	24 31	Th	...	7	14	21 28	Th	5	12	19	26 ...
F	4	11	18	25 ...	F	1	8	15	22 29	F	6	13	20	27 ...
S	5	12	19	26 ...	S	2	9	16	23 30	S	7	14	21	28 ...

COST OF LIVING DURING THE WAR.

THE following information relating to the increased cost of living since the outbreak of war in August, 1914, is based upon Board of Trade statistics available in official documents, and has been compiled by the War Emergency: Workers' National Committee.

Reference to the tables shows that the expenditure on food in the standard working-class budget, which was reckoned at 22s. 6d. in 1904, had risen to 25s. in July, 1914, and in the large centres of population it had risen to 51s. 3d. in December, 1917—an increase of 105 per cent. during the period of the war. It will also be noted that the purchasing power of the sovereign spent on food has, therefore, been reduced to 9s. 9d. These figures relate to the principal articles of food. The average rise in foodstuffs of secondary importance has been even greater, and amounts to between 140 and 150 per cent., the advances ranging from 230 per cent. in the case of split lentils, 160 per cent. for syrup, and 140 per cent. for Scotch oatmeal, to 95 per cent. for cocoa, and 30 per cent. for coffee.

I. THE BOARD OF TRADE STANDARD WORKING-CLASS BUDGET.

The following budget is based on 1,944 family budgets collected by means of an inquiry by the Board of Trade in the summer of 1904. The average weekly income of the families included was 36s. 10d., and the total expenditure on food 22s. 6d., being 61 per cent. of the family income. There were three or four children in the average family. This expenditure on food at the prices of the summer of 1904 was distributed thus:—

	s.	d.
Bread and Flour	3	7
Meat (bought by weight)	4	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Other Meat (including Fish)	0	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
Bacon	0	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Eggs	1	0
Fresh Milk.....	1	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Cheese	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Butter.....	2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Potatoes	0	11
Vegetables and Fruit	0	11
Currants and Raisins	0	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Rice, Tapioca, and Oatmeal	0	6
Tea	1	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Coffee and Cocoa.....	0	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
Sugar ..	0	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
Jam, Marmalade, Treacle, and Syrup	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Pickles and Condiments.....	0	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Other items	1	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total	22	6

The People's Year Book.

II. RISE IN COST OF LIVING AND THE REDUCED PURCHASING POWER OF THE SOVEREIGN SPENT ON FOOD IN THE LARGE TOWNS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE WAR.

(Illustrated from the changes in cost of the Board of Trade Standard Working-class Food Budget.)

	Cost of One Week's Food for Family.	Percentage Increase above July, 1914.	Purchasing Power of a Sovereign spent on Food.
	s. d.		s. d.
1904.....	22 6	—	—
1914—July.....	25 0	—	20 0
August 8th.....	29 0	16 per cent.	17 3
" 29th.....	27 9	11 "	18 0
September 12th.....	27 9	11 "	18 0
" 30th.....	28 3	13 "	17 8
October 30th.....	28 3	13 "	17 8
December 1st.....	29 3	17 "	17 0
1915—January 1st.....	29 9	19 "	16 10
February 1st.....	30 9	23 "	16 3
March 1st.....	31 6	26 "	15 10
April 1st.....	31 6	26 "	15 10
May 1st.....	32 0	28 "	15 7
June 1st.....	33 9	35 "	14 10
July 1st.....	33 9	35 "	14 10
August 1st.....	34 0	36 "	14 8
September 1st.....	34 3	37 "	14 7
October 1st.....	35 6	42 "	14 1
November 1st.....	35 9	43 "	14 0
December 1st.....	36 6	46 "	13 8
1916—January 1st.....	37 0	48 "	13 6
February 1st.....	37 3	49 "	13 5
March 1st.....	37 9	51 "	13 3
April 1st.....	38 0	52 "	13 2
May 1st.....	39 9	59 "	12 7
June 1st.....	40 6	62 "	12 4
July 1st.....	41 3	65 "	12 1
August 1st.....	40 6	62 "	12 4
September 1st.....	42 0	68 "	11 11
October 1st.....	42 9	71 "	11 8
November 1st.....	45 3	81 "	11 0
December 1st.....	46 9	87 "	10 8
1917—January 1st.....	47 9	91 "	10 5
February 1st.....	48 3	93 "	10 4
March 1st.....	49 3	97 "	10 2
April 1st.....	49 9	99 "	10 0
May 1st.....	50 6	102 "	9 11
June 1st.....	51 6	106 "	9 8
July 1st.....	52 3	109 "	9 6
August 1st.....	51 3	105 "	9 9
September 1st.....	52 3	109 "	9 6
October 1st.....	50 6	102 "	9 11
November 1st.....	51 6	106 "	9 8
December 1st.....	51 3	105 "	9 9

FAMILY GROCERY BILL

PURCHASING POWER OF £1 STERLING BASED

OF 21½ LBS. GROCERIES (MADE UP AS

YEAR.	AVERAGE PRICE PER LB.				
	Bacon.	Butter.	Cheese.	Flour.	Lard.
	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.
1882	7·16	15·52	6·47	1·75	6·47
1883	6·78	14·88	6·71	1·64	5·62
1884	6·01	14·34	6·71	1·45	4·66
1885	5·09	13·37	5·43	1·26	3·89
1886	5·06	12·58	5·39	1·12	3·78
1887	5·41	12·60	6·40	1·13	4·20
1888	5·60	12·34	5·74	1·17	5·03
1889	5·46	12·95	5·53	1·29	4·21
1890	5·03	12·38	5·39	1·19	3·89
1891	5·11	12·86	5·64	1·32	3·87
1892	5·84	13·21	5·80	1·18	4·39
1893	6·69	12·74	5·87	1·00	5·79
1894	5·34	11·61	5·70	0·85	4·41
1895	4·85	11·19	5·02	0·90	3·75
1896	4·37	11·58	5·09	1·00	2·89
1897	4·89	11·47	5·58	1·20	2·68
1898	4·96	11·35	5·24	1·39	3·24
1899	4·75	12·19	5·85	1·01	3·22
1900	5·74	12·21	6·10	1·04	4·02
1901	6·14	12·45	5·49	1·02	4·83
1902	6·55	12·20	5·92	1·09	5·80
1903	6·31	11·97	6·45	1·08	4·84
1904	5·53	11·81	5·37	1·13	4·00
1905	6·08	12·32	6·09	1·12	4·04
1906	6·64	12·82	6·55	1·09	4·89
1907	6·56	12·39	6·79	1·15	5·00
1908	6·15	13·08	6·68	1·29	4·99
1909	7·24	12·73	6·73	1·37	6·32
1910	8·19	12·87	6·56	1·23	6·83
1911	6·87	13·40	7·11	1·16	5·01
1912	7·21	13·95	7·47	1·24	5·77
1913	8·21	13·51	7·05	1·22	6·13
1914	8·10	13·88	7·53	1·29	5·84
1915	9·28	17·28	9·30	1·87	5·75
1916*.....	11·44	†14·30	11·39	2·10	8·50

NOTE.—Prices making up above figures are wholesale and mostly at port, and are only for relative comparison.

* In 1916 the figures are based on the substitution of 1lb. Butter and 1lb. Margarine instead of 2lbs. Butter.

† This price represents the cost of ½lb. Butter and ½lb. Margarine.

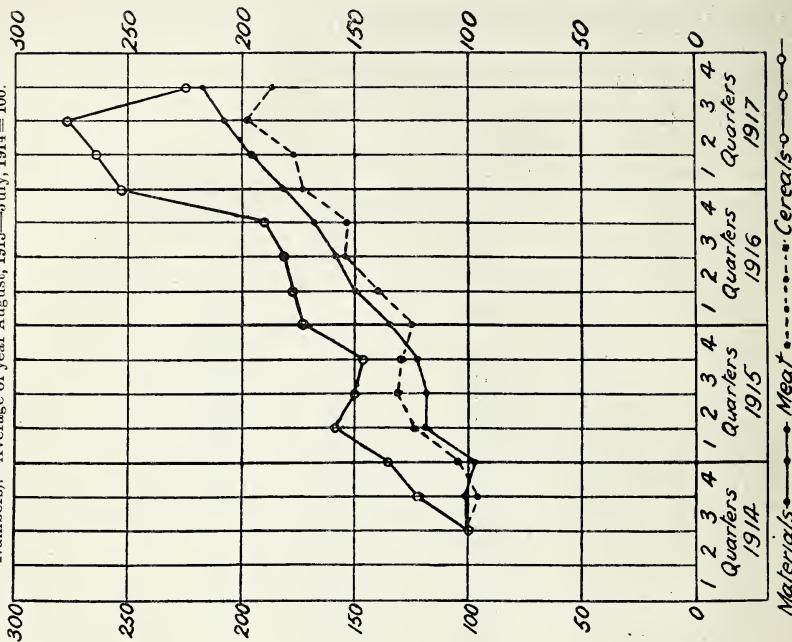
FOR THIRTY-FIVE YEARS.

ON COST OF AVERAGE WEEKLY FAMILY ORDER
BELOW FROM C.W.S. OFFICIAL RECORDS):--

AVERAGE PRICE PER LB.			Cost of Average Weekly Family Order of 21½lbs.	Purchasing Power of £1 Sterling on same basis.	YEAR.
Oatmeal.	Sugar.	Tea.			
d.	d.	d.	d.	lb.	
1·43	3·11	21·55	90·32	57·13 1882
1·54	2·96	21·55	86·54	59·62 1883
1·44	2·37	21·02	79·20	65·15 1884
1·40	2·13	20·46	72·16	71·51 1885
1·29	1·95	19·84	67·25	76·73 1886
1·13	1·83	19·71	67·77	76·14 1887
1·12	2·05	19·57	70·81	72·87 1888
1·24	2·36	19·26	72·01	71·66 1889
1·20	1·90	17·72	66·37	77·75 1890
1·36	1·94	17·42	69·26	74·65 1891
1·37	2·00	17·44	69·61	74·13 1892
1·25	2·20	17·28	68·69	75·12 1893
1·12	1·80	17·00	60·63	85·11 1894
1·10	1·61	16·87	58·38	88·39 1895
1·03	1·66	16·60	59·48	86·75 1896
1·12	1·45	16·37	61·47	83·94 1897
1·23	1·49	16·17	63·85	80·81 1898
1·09	1·55	15·86	61·00	84·59 1899
1·12	1·60	16·94	63·69	81·02 1900
1·19	1·73	17·26	65·18	79·16 1901
1·73	1·61	16·89	66·50	77·60 1902
1·20	1·75	16·63	65·37	78·94 1903
1·19	1·97	17·87	65·39	78·91 1904
1·17	2·17	16·98	67·56	76·37 1905
1·18	1·83	15·42	67·28	76·69 1906
1·34	1·92	15·54	67·82	76·09 1907
1·33	1·86	15·65	70·21	73·49 1908
1·29	1·82	15·13	71·79	71·88 1909
1·16	2·03	15·45	72·38	71·29 1910
1·25	2·05	15·81	71·00	72·67 1911
1·44	2·08	15·85	74·28	69·46 1912
1·36	1·69	15·77	72·45	71·22 1913
1·44	2·28	16·14	76·65	67·32 1914
1·98	3·16	21·26	99·06	52·09 1915
2·12	4·31	25·18	107·13	48·16 *1916

Average Weekly Family Order is computed at: 1lb. Bacon, 2lbs. Butter, ½lb. Cheese, 12lbs. Flour, ½lb. Lard, 1lb. Oatmeal, 4lbs. Sugar, and ¼lb. Tea.

General Movement of Wholesale Prices (based on the *Economist* Index Numbers). Average of year August, 1913—July, 1914 = 100.



WHOLESALE PRICES DURING THE WAR.

THE inset diagram shows the increase of wholesale prices of cereals, of meat, and of raw materials (textile, mineral, &c.) during the war. The average prices of the twelve months before the outbreak of war are taken as the standard and equated to 100; prices at the first day of each quarter from October 1st, 1914, to October 1st, 1917, are expressed as percentages of the standard. The prices of raw materials have risen almost without intermission since the beginning of 1915, and are now 115 per cent. above the standard. Cereals began to rise in August, 1914, and except for seasonal variations continued till July, 1917, when they stood at 176 per cent. above the standard. Potatoes are included with cereals, and account for part of the greatest inflation of price. During the last four months the prices have dropped considerably till in October they were 127 per cent. above the standard. The prices of meat (including pork) have moved very nearly (apart from seasonal variations) at the same rate as those of raw materials; but during the last three months meat has fallen, while raw materials have risen slightly. The wholesale price of meat is now about 90 per cent. above the standard. Retail prices of food have not risen so much as wholesale prices of food. The Department of Labour estimates that the town workman's food budget has increased 97 per cent. in cost since July, 1914. The wholesale prices of the same commodities have increased about 107 per cent.

—From "National Food Journal," October 24th.



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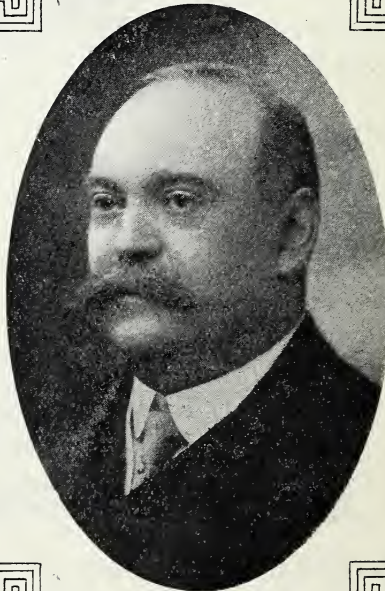
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CO-OPERATION AS A EUROPEAN FORCE.

AS a public educator the war stands without peer. Its shafts of demonstration have been as piercing as lightning, and its object-lessons as clear as the noonday sun. Amongst the chief of these is the vivid revelation of co-operation and capitalism as representative embodiments of the social and anti-social forces of civilisation; as antipodal one to the other as light and darkness. While the nations have poured forth their blood and their treasure like water, the mammon-hunter within the gates has goaded nations to desperation, and compelled the intervention of Governments in order to put a limit to the riot of profiteering and the orgie of public blackmail. To plutocratism, in short, the day of Armageddon has been the day of judgment. To co-operation it has been the day of distinction in many lands. Most significant of all as to the new phase of affairs is the calling to high office of leading co-operators in country after country to undertake the task of evolving order from chaos, and to reach the profiteers with the long arm of authority. In Great Britain, Mr. T. Killon (chairman, C.W.S.) represents the movement in the Ministry of Food; Mr. P. Coley (director) is on the Coffee Advisory Committee; Mr. T. W. Allen (director) is additional private secretary in the Ministry of Food; Mr. J. E. Johns (director) is on the Government Tea Advisory Committee; whilst Mr. W. Lander (director) has been appointed to the Millers' Advisory Committee. Several C.W.S. business representatives have been elected on food regulation committees. In France, M. G. Garbado, director of the purchasing department in the Co-operative Wholesale, has been appointed as expert coadjutor by the Administrative Council of Paris. In Germany, Dr. August Müller, editor-in-chief of the publications of the Central Union, has been successively appointed to the positions of an expert in the Government Food Control Bureau and of an Under Secretary of State. In Austria, Dr. Karl Renner, first chairman of the Central Union of Co-operative Societies, has been made a member of the State Food Bureau and appointed editor of its press service. In Switzerland, a functionary of the Co-operative Union has been appointed to a Government office. In Denmark, director L. Broberg, a member of the Udvalget, or Board of the Joint Co-operative Movement, has been appointed one of the six members of the State Food Board; while director Chr. Nielsen, of the Jutland Wholesale Provender Association, has been made an executive officer. In Finland, no

fewer than five co-operative senators have become administrative chiefs: Senator Väinö Tanner (chairman of the Finnish Wholesale), chief of the Finance Committee; Senator W. Wuolijoki (another director of the Wholesale), chief of another; Senator Allan Serlachius (director of the Central Credit Bank), chief of the Civil Section; Senator Leo Ehrnrooth (a member of the Elanto Co-operative Society's board), chief of the Committee of Commerce and Industry; and Senator Matti Paasivuori (another Elanto director), a deputy-chief. In Russia, S. N. Prokopovitch, one of the foremost champions of co-operation, was appointed Minister of Commerce and Industry under the Provisional Government, and V. N. Selheim (editor of the official organs of the Moscow Union) was made Assistant Minister of Agriculture; whilst the chairman of the Moscow Union (D. S. Korobov), the chairman of the Moscow Committee for Agrarian Loan-savings and Industrial Associations (V. I. Anisimov), together with the manager of the trading department of the Narodny Bank, were all selected to occupy important posts in connection with the organisation of supplies.

As for co-operative reinforcements during the era of colossal food profiteering, the figures may be allowed to speak for themselves. Thus, during the period from the end of 1913 to the end of 1916, the increase of membership of various Continental co-operative movements has been as follows:—In Denmark, 23·4; in Germany, 38·3; in Holland, 41·1; in Norway, 97·8; and in Sweden, 119·9; while in Finland the total of distributive societies throughout the country has increased 99·7 per cent., and in Russia the societies affiliated to the Moscow Union have increased by no less than 217 per cent. In the societies of the Swiss Union the increase in collective membership in two years amounted to 10 per cent.

Thus, in view of all the circumstances of this earth-shaking era, it becomes obvious that the time is ripe, and over-ripe, for a review of the world-forces of co-operation. For the movements individually, the reader is referred to the sketches which follow later on.

To begin with, it should be noted to how large an extent co-operation abroad as an organised movement is the growth of this century. Thus the Belgian Union was founded in 1901, the German Central Union in 1903, the Finnish Wholesale in 1904, the Austrian Union in 1904 and the Wholesale in 1905, the Norwegian in 1906, the Bohemian in 1907 and its Wholesale in 1909, and the Polish Union in 1911; while in the Far East the Central Union in Japan was established in 1903. Moreover, as the Swiss Union was founded in 1890, the Danish in 1896, the Moscow Union in 1898, and the Swedish in 1899, the facts suffice to show how closely the foundation of older organisations approximates to that of the new; while the dates, as a whole, demonstrate that organised movements are, as regards the great majority, the product of the last 20 years.

TYPES OF UNIONS.

As each national organisation has had to develop in accordance with specific conditions and along its own lines, a variation of type is the thing one might expect. Taking them as a whole they may be divided into three species. First, those which figure as Co-operative Wholesales, though other activities may be associated with business; the organisations of Denmark and Norway, Finland and Hungary, rank in this category. Secondly, there are the Unions which have developed the whole range of co-ordinated activities and carry on the wholesale in addition to the press, the work of propoganda, education, and defence, the psychological functions of the Union taking rank with the material. Of this type are the Unions in Switzerland, Sweden, and Russia. Thirdly, come the movements in which the Union and Wholesale are legally separate and distinct entities, as in Germany, Austria, Bohemia Holland and Italy, and likewise in France; although in the latter case the Union and Wholesale, in 1916, became more closely connected by the appointment of a unitary administrative board. In Holland the Wholesale formed a department of the Union down to 1914. Neutrality is the characteristic of all the representative Unions—the Belgian Union excepted. But if the organisations are neutral the members are not. In this connection it may be stated that the sequel of the trend of historical events is a membership in many cases of a predominantly Socialistic tinge. As regards the membership of the Central Unions in Germany and Austria, and of that of the Co-operative Union in Sweden, the fact is too palpable to be ignored; whilst in Finland and Russia the ultra-democratic trend is also in evidence, and in Italy and France to a certain extent as well.

ORGANISATION.

In the matter of organisation the German and Russian movements may be regarded as outstanding types; the latter for the reason that organisation is still largely in the experimental stage, taking the movement as a whole, and for the additional reason that the organisation of operations by the Moscow Union over so vast a territory and under unparalleled conditions and circumstances has been a credit to its directors and an example to the whole country. On the other hand, Germany ranks as a specialist in matters of organisation, in view of which fact a few words with regard to its most go-ahead society will not be out of place. In the Hamburg "Produktion" Society the organisation comprises three committees, the first being the executive board, or committee of management, composed of the four chiefs of the salaried staff, and the second being the supervisory board of eleven members. For the settlement of important questions and current affairs the two boards hold joint

sittings, in which the supervisory committee, by virtue of its majority of members, has the decisive voice. The election of the members of both committees comes within the province of the general meeting of members. Last, but not least, there is the members' committee, whose functions, though purely auxiliary, add materially to the efficiency of the organisation. These functions are (1) to assist the administrators in the work of organisation and agitation; (2) to enlighten the administration as to the wishes or complaints of members; (3) to help the supervisory committee in the regular control of the stores; and (4) to assist, if need be, in the half-yearly taking of stock. For every store three representatives are elected to the members' committee, which thus forms a pretty large body, and one necessitating further organisation. Hence all the stores are divided into eight districts, and each district section of the members' committee elects a representative and his deputy, and these representatives and their deputies collectively (who thus constitute the board of the members' committee) convene meetings, organise propaganda, the distribution of leaflets, and so forth; and how effectively this is done is attested by the fact that Hamburg, with its million inhabitants, has been billed with leaflets from house to house and from end to end in a single evening. As regards shop management, it hardly needs to be stated that any interference therewith is entirely barred out.

II.—CO-OPERATION AND THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT.

To the fuller understanding of co-operative movements a consideration of their relations to the social mass movement of progress is a matter essential. In this connection the central factor is the rise of the working-class proletariat, moulded by material and spiritual forces; in other words, by the creative force of industrialism on the one hand, and on the other by the re-creative force of a new social ideal. It is no fortuitous event that the leading industrial nations have been the pathfinders of progress, nor that the industrial regions of these countries have been the first to respond to the call of new and epoch-making movements and the main stronghold thereafter. The advent and growth of co-operation amongst industrial populations has been determined by no blind stroke of chance, but by the action of social forces. In this connection the co-operative precedence of Britain was just as inevitable as the later advent of co-operation first and foremost in industrial regions abroad. As in Britain co-operation may be said to have first drawn breath in a Birmingham tailor's shop, to have been cradled at New Lanark and re-cradled by the weavers of Rochdale, so co-operation in France first emerged in manufacturing Guebwiller under the auspices of a group of Alsatian workers. In Italy it was the railwaymen of Turin who set the first co-operative example, and later on Milan furnished one more salutary still. In

Belgium the industrial regions provided the first examples, and in Spain the workers of Catalonia. In Russia the first society was established in commercial Riga, whilst Christiania claims the credit for the opening of the first store in Norway. If Denmark may be cited as an exception, well it is just the exception which adds force to the general rule.

CO-OPERATION AND SOCIAL IDEALS.

Equally historical is the connection between the surgence and resurgence of co-operation and the rise and revival of the labour movement—in the earlier period with the industrial phase, in the later period with the political, and in both cases and periods it is impossible to overlook the factor of the ideal of a new social order. In Britain it was the Owenite crusade which first bodied forth the vision of a new life, impelled enthusiasts into the paths of social reconstruction, and furnished the inspiration for the Rochdale Pioneers and the early missionaries of the movement. In France, co-operation first began when men's minds were fermenting with the ideals of Saint-Simon and Fourier, and the earliest pioneering experiments proclaimed the effort to translate theory into practice. From France, Belgium drew the inspiration for the earliest co-operative efforts. In Italy it was the working-men followers of Mazzini who opened the first co-operative store. In Germany, the classic land of the military and bureaucratic castes, the conditions under which co-operation made its advent could hardly be called auspicious. In the eyes of the German idealist, Victor Aimé Huber, co-operation was to be the means of pacifying the working class, reconciling them with the hard-fisted paternalism of the Prussian regime, and converting them into a bulwark of the old social order; whilst Schulze-Delitzsch—the founder of a now obsolete type of co-operation—made it his object to embody the individualist spirit in co-operative form. In both cases the end aimed at was the reconciliation of fundamentally irreconcilable things, and brought forth its Nemesis. Forty years later German co-operation resurgent broke through its stereotyped shell, and a regenerated organisation marched on to the front rank of European movements; and what adds significance to the event is its contemporaneousness with the growth of the German-labour movement (industrial and political), deriving its inspiration from the remoulded conceptions of a new social order. And, as in Germany, so in France and Belgium in the eighties, and in Sweden in the late nineties of the last century, the co-operative revival closely coincides with the new labourism animated by social ideals. In the first decade of the present century the co-operative revival in Austria, in Bohemia, in Russia and Poland has reflected the rise of a strenuous populist movement.

THE CO-OPERATION OF WORKING-CLASS MOVEMENTS.

To what has been said may be added the evidence of a sense of interdependence, of co-activity and mutual support, between the different sections of the working-class movement in various lands. In Norway, in 1916, an arrangement was made for the setting up of a joint co-operative and trade union board for the settlement of labour questions in the co-operative movement. In Holland the Co-operative Congress of 1917 pronounced in favour of standard conditions for co-operative employés, and in 1918 the question of a compact between the co-operative and trade union movements is to be settled. In Switzerland the two organised movements work together as occasion demands. To quote from the co-operative report for 1915: "In several cases an understanding has been effected to the general satisfaction without the intervention of the central organisation. On the other hand a collaboration has been realised with regard to certain questions of political economy, without special preliminary arrangements (as in the case of the League for the Lowering of the Cost of Living), and without a doubt in case of need the collaboration will be renewed in the future."

In Italy the avowed aim of the leaders of co-operation is a compact alliance between the co-operative and trade union movements. In Russia the Kiev Congress of 1913 declared for an *entente* between the two movements, for standard conditions for co-operative employés, and the establishment of a joint co-operative and labour board for the avoidance and settlement of internal disputes. In Germany the working alliance between the two movements has taken shape in the compact with trade unionism for a term of years, in the establishment of a joint tribunal and of a joint insurance society. And likewise in Austria the establishment of a joint board for the settlement of disputes and the maintenance of standard conditions in co-operative societies bespeaks the relations between the two movements.

As regards co-operation and the political labour movements there can be no question that the latter are the only avowed and recognised champions of co-operative interests in the legislative sphere; whilst Belgium, as all the world knows, affords the unique but solitary instance of three movements in one.

CO-OPERATION AND POLITICS.

In view of the recent pronouncement of the British Co-operative Congress signifying the transformation of the movement into a political force, the question as to how affairs stand abroad takes on renewed interest. In France at the last election the movement took a definite part by addressing a list of test questions to political candidates, and throwing its weight in the scale. In Switzerland in 1914 the movement in the Canton of Berne took the field in conjunction with the advanced

political labour party, and frustrated the engineering of a measure intended to benefit the private trading interests as against those of co-operation. In Russia the whole forces of co-operation have been brought to bear in support of the revolution. As for co-operative legislators, an assemblage of them would form an interesting international picture of men who are among the forces of progress. In Belgium the presence of a man of the calibre of Anseele in the Legislature has been a national benefit. In Switzerland the movement has its direct representative in the Legislature in the person of Dr. O. Schär (vice-chairman of the Administrative Board of the V.S.K.), and previous to his election co-operation was represented by the chairman of the same board (Herr B. Jäggi), whose resignation of his legislative seat was much regretted. In Italy the presence of a group of Parliamentary representatives is the normal feature of every co-operative congress. In Sweden, Finland, and Russia prominent co-operators figure in the political arena; and in France, Germany, Denmark, and Austria co-operation has its supporters in the legislative sphere.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT.

A reference to the co-operative women's movement abroad will also be appropriate. In five countries at least (apart from the United Kingdom), viz., in Sweden and Norway, Holland, Austria, and Switzerland, co-operation has its women's guilds; whilst in Finland the principle of equal electoral rights in the legislative domain may be left to speak for the equal rights of men and women in the co-operative sphere; and as regards Russia, it would be impossible to overlook the present trend of events. In the matter of sex equality the movement in Switzerland has been anteceded by that in Austria amongst others, inasmuch as the statutes of the Austrian Central Union place co-operative men and women on an equal footing, whereas the recently revised statutes of the Swiss Union make no reference to the point in question, although the women's guild movement in German-speaking Switzerland has attained to conference dimensions.



THE BRITISH MOVEMENT.

AFTER the foregoing review of co-operative movements it is befitting that we devote a brief space to the prototype and pacemaker of all. To co-operators throughout the world Rochdale ranks as the Mecca, Manchester as the metropolis, and Great Britain as the classic land of distributive co-operation. Amongst all the countries of the world Britain stands forth as the only one which has concentrated its energies on industrial co-operative developments. Amongst all the world's movements the British

movement ranks as the only one without co-operative rival or peer. In a word, the movement at home, by its outstanding characteristics, stands in a category by itself. Like the British Empire it has developed to the greatest extent, apart from any pre-conceived plan or design. As with the nation, so with the movement; its works have been works of improvisation, and its institutions have mostly been established *ad hoc*. As with the method adopted by the Rochdale Pioneers in 1844, so every new departure in the history of the movement has been made with the direct object of meeting a definitely felt want. The foundation of the C.W.S. in 1864 and of the S.C.W.S. in 1868, the first national Co-operative Congress in 1869, the establishment of the Co-operative Newspaper Society in 1871, and of the Scottish organ in 1894, along with other institutions—all betoken the growth of a structure standing in marked contrast with those of various Continental movements, which have been organised right from the centre, and which have developed largely in accordance with a pre-conceived plan.

As regards the scale of operations, it is sufficient to point to the figure of practically 122 millions turnover attained by the distributive co-operative movement in the United Kingdom in 1916. But this figure must not be allowed to obscure the fact that the distributive movement ranks also as a productive force of the first magnitude—a magnitude attested by the productions of the distributive societies and Wholesales combined to the tune of 33½ million pounds sterling in 1915, out of a total of 38½ millions for productive co-operation as a whole. In view of the vital aspect of productive operations, as well as of the expanding scale and of enlargements foreshadowed, the figures recorded deserve to be underlined, more especially as their significance is apt to receive greater recognition abroad than at home, where collective figures, by their portentous volume, are prone to occupy the front of the stage—a circumstance not altogether unnatural considering that the operations of the distributive societies and the Wholesale Societies collectively reached in 1916 the striking figure of 188 millions out of a co-operative total of 193 millions, or thereabouts.

But, needless to say, the war marks a turning-point in the history of the movement as in that of the nation, and signs are not wanting to indicate that the movement is awakening to a consciousness of its vast power, and to the necessity of putting forth its whole strength in view of the Machiavellian conspiracy against the greatest welfare movement in the British Isles, and of the campaign of public spoliation conducted by the private interests in a period of national necessity. The Philistines have thrown down the gage of battle, and, both in self-defence and as the guardian of public interests, the movement cannot do other than gird on its armour and prepare for the fray. In the sphere of industrial co-operation there are yet worlds to conquer, and opportunity awaits on the movement as never

before. Economically, the time is ripening for great developments in the co-operative field. Psychologically, the time is ripe for a rousing co-operative campaign and for the voice of the movement to make itself heard above the din of conflict throughout all the land.

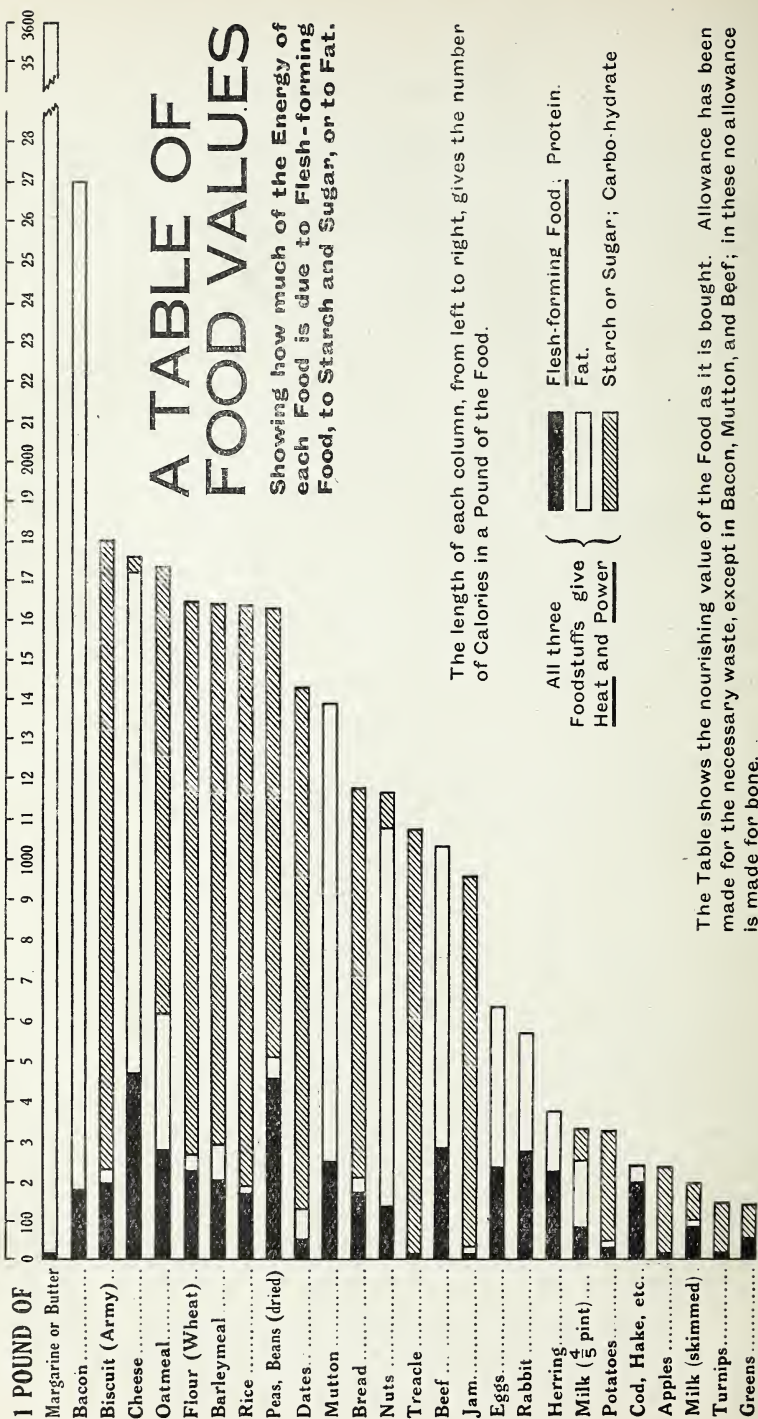
Apart from all this, the memorable decision of the Congress of 1917, besides revealing the mood and the mettle of the movement, marks a new and striking development; signifying, as it does, the abandonment of that attitude of "splendid isolation" (to use a historical phrase) characteristic of the movement throughout all its past history. This transformation of the co-operative movement into a political force is the counter-stroke to wrong and injustice. What nothing else in the world has been able to accomplish, the "dark forces" opposed to co-operation have been instrumental in bringing about. Wanton aggression, besides helping on the unification of the working-class movement, will have the effect of bringing into the field a force whose potency may be gauged by the fact that it counts its adherents by millions and its resources by scores of millions. With unswerving mutual support and co-ordinated effort between the co-operative and the industrial labour movements the struggle for a civilised standard of life, and for the democratisation of wealth and its agencies, will enter on a new phase.



SALES OF EUROPEAN CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETIES.

	1916.	1915.	1914.
	£	£	£
C.W.S., Manchester	52,230,074	43,101,747	34,910,813
S.C.W.S., Glasgow.....	14,502,410	11,363,075	9,425,383
I.A.W.S., Dublin	479,876	375,379	268,385
M.S.P.O., Moscow.....	8,947,368	2,400,000	1,088,737
G.E.G., Hamburg	6,694,800	7,642,931	7,876,202
F.D.B., Copenhagen	4,695,022	3,969,906	3,866,046
V.S.K., Båle.....	2,986,358	2,007,727	1,828,683
S.O.K., Helsingfors	2,886,406	1,403,940	971,440
Hangya (Ant), Buda-Pesth	2,398,880	1,919,347	1,259,121
G. ö. K., Vienna	2,087,199	1,205,345	1,072,000
K.F., Stockholm.....	1,222,957	916,536	549,403
Handelskamer, Rotterdam	718,184	498,888	397,284
M. d. G., Paris	479,203	364,660	548,820
N.K.L., Christiania	334,505	247,650	172,055
C.I.G., Milan	129,600	100,087	56,400
F.C.B., Brussels	80,000	80,000	128,000
Total.....	100,872,842	77,597,218	64,418,772

FOOD UNITS OR CALORIES.



A TABLE OF FOOD VALUES

Showing how much of the Energy of each Food is due to **Flesh-forming Food, to Starch and Sugar, or to Fat.**

The length of each column, from left to right, gives the number of Calories in a Pound of the Food.

All three Foodstuffs give Heat and Power

Flesh-forming Food : Protein.
 Fat.
 Starch or Sugar; Carbo-hydrate

The Table shows the nourishing value of the Food as it is bought. Allowance has been made for the necessary waste, except in Bacon, Mutton, and Beef; in these no allowance is made for bone.

EXCISE CHARGES.

THE Excise is the term used to denote charges on home-made goods. Though there were duties of Excise under Charles I. and the Protectorate, yet Excise in this country may be dated from those Acts of Charles II., 1660.

The yield of the Excise duties of recent years was as follows:—£38,800,000 in 1913; £39,590,000 in 1914; £42,313,000 in 1915; £61,210,000 in 1916; £56,380,000 in 1917; and it is estimated that in 1917-18 the yield will be only £34,950,000, or £21,430,000 less than the previous year. This last is a result so remarkable that it must be explained that it results almost wholly from the restrictions placed on the production and on the sale of alcoholic liquors, the chief of which, viz., beer and whisky, are taxed in the Excise. In addition, the figures just given are eloquent of the effect of war upon the Excise, both in increase and decrease, the estimate for 1917-18, after all, bringing the yield down only a little way below that for 1913.

The principal articles from which the Excise revenue is drawn are the following:—

That table is remarkable for the importance of the duties on drink—beer, spirits, licences, and monopoly values—in the Excise revenue. Of the £61,207,683 of 1916, some £58,710,262 came from these sources, or nearly 96 per cent. of the Excise revenue. It may be observed, too, how greatly the war has affected this branch of the revenue; it caused it to go up from £38,000,000 in 1913 to £61,000,000 in 1916, and now the estimate for 1917-18 is only for £34,950,000. This, too, is connected with revenue from drink. It has just been shown how in 1916 some £58,710,262 was received from drink, and the estimates for the same four heads for 1917-18 look for: Spirits, £8,300,000; beer, £15,100,000; liquor licences, £2,100,000; and monopoly values, £15,000; or a total of only £25,515,000—a fall in the Excise from drink since 1916 of £33,195,000, in itself pointing to a social convulsion.

CHANGES IN TAXATION.

Let us turn to the changes in taxation connected with these great changes upwards and downwards. Standard beer is taken at a specific

	March, 1914.	March, 1916.
	£	£
Spirits	19,539,777	21,515,014
Beer	13,622,971	33,747,269
Sugar, &c. (Home-grown)	56,491	174,824
Coffee Mixture Labels	1,401	1,805
Chicory	775	4,129
Tobacco (Home-grown)	20,178	37,569
Motor Spirit (Home-made)	17,761	32,152
Patent Medicine Labels	360,377	627,454
Playing-cards	33,542	39,087
Railway Duty	288,368	259,124
Liquor Licences	4,432,807	3,420,605
Club Duty	63,048	73,392
Monopoly Values	20,824	27,374
Motor-car Licences	674,174	737,429
Other Licences	526,430	486,827
Moneys Deposited	-967	+23,629
Total.....	£39,659,957	£61,207,683

gravity of 1055, and before the war it was charged with 7s. 9d. a barrel when home-brewed, but by two increases it has a duty laid on it now of 24s. Spirits pay 14s. 9d. a gallon, an attempt to raise that duty during the war having been defeated. Liquor licences, affected by restrictions on sale, were at first allowed a deduction of one-quarter of the price, but in 1917 it was enacted that the remission on a licence shall be in proportion to the loss on business. Sugar (home-grown), when taxed in September, 1915, was charged at 7s. a cwt. at the standard of 98° polarisation; it has been charged at 11s. 8d. since 1916. Coffee mixture labels used to be charged at $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per $\frac{1}{4}$ lb., then at $\frac{3}{4}$ d., but now the duty is $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. Chicory was at 12s. 1d.; then in September, 1915, at 18s. 8d.; it is now at 38s. 6d. the cwt. Home-grown tobacco from 3s. 6d. was raised to 5s. 4d. in 1915, and, in 1917, 50 per cent. was added to that, making 8s. a lb. duty. The 3d. a gallon on motor spirit was made 6d. in September, 1915, but one-half only is charged when it is used for commercial purposes, &c. The duty on patent medicine labels of $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. up to £1 was doubled in each case in September, 1915, and remains at those rates. A duty of 4d. a gallon was imposed on cider and perry in 1916. In that year, also, a duty was imposed on tickets for entertainments, ranging from $\frac{1}{2}$ d. on 2d. to 1s. on 12s. 6d., and an extra 1s. for every 10s. above that; in 1917 that duty was raised, and now ranges from $\frac{1}{2}$ d. on 2d. to 2s. on 15s., and 6d. extra on each 5s. above that amount. Matches, too, were made dutiable at 3s. 4d. per 10,000 matches, and a duty was also placed on mechanical firelighters; and, perhaps, the only other duty which must be mentioned here is that on saccharine (and other substances of the like nature), the duty on which, in sympathy with that on sugar, was raised from 7d. to 3s. in September, 1915, and to 4s. 6d. an oz. in 1916.

This enumeration of changes in the rates of duties is sufficient to bring one

or two sound conclusions. A system of Excise carried from one or two articles of large consumption is a mass of details requiring great pains in mastering it, as in observing the rules it lays down—rules which enter into the warp and weft of daily life, and doing so, as could be shown, in an expensive (not to say an unjust) way. Our Excise system of duties is considered light even now, compared with that of other countries, but when tea, cocoa, coffee, chicory, sugar of all kinds, tobacco, beer, spirits and wine, and several other articles of frequent or daily use are brought under the fiscal harrow, there is no denying that such a system does interfere with freedom of action, and connected thereby are questions which deserve the study and attention of all our people.

The facts adduced above respecting the yield of the Excise duties, the great fluctuation in their yield during the war-time, and the means which have been adopted to raise taxes meanwhile, yield the other conclusion readily. The changes of taxation since 1913 have been, in almost every particular, advances in rates or impositions of new taxes, and yet, such is the convulsion of society, that we find the Excise, after yielding a higher revenue, giving way again to the tune of £33,000,000, a state of things so remarkable as to demand attention from all. This is not the place for advocacy, but such a fluctuation in the yield of a tax is not a healthy sign fiscally (nor financially); but, when we reflect that the whole of this fluctuation is due to the restrictions on the sale of drink, the subject acquires great importance. Details of consumption for 1916 and 1917 are not available yet, but it is known that, after rising in 1915, the average consumption per head of the population of beer and spirits has been decreased. That decrease, however, is the consequence only of the heavy hand of the Board of Control restricting facilities for sale.

INDUSTRIAL UNREST AND REMEDIES.

DURING 1917 a Commission of Inquiry into Industrial Unrest was established, and a report of its work was issued in August. Although the subject was confined mostly to war conditions, and the causes of unrest were of a temporary character and mainly arising out of the war, they are valuable as indicating circumstances which readily or permanently affect the outlook of the working classes.

A comparison of the reports shows that there is a strong feeling of patriotism on the part of employers and employed throughout the country, and they are determined to help the State in its present crisis. Feelings of a revolutionary character are not entertained by the bulk of the men. On the contrary, the majority of the workmen are sensible of the national difficulties, especially in the period of trial and stress through which we are now passing. Whilst the eight reports agree as to the main causes of industrial unrest, important differences appear in the emphasis laid by the various Commissioners upon specific causes.

It is clearly shown that the position of working men was seriously disturbed by high food prices in relation to wages, and the unequal distribution of food. Restriction of personal freedom is also an effective cause of unrest, particularly arising from the Munitions of War Acts, which prevented skilled workers making the same wages as unskilled workmen employed under these Acts. Workmen were also jealous about their trade union liberties, and their surrender of trade union customs and privileges seemed to breed a suspicion that they would not be restored. This led to lack of confidence in the Government. Annoyance was caused by delay in settlement of disputes. Other causes which contributed to discontent included:—

- (1) Operation of the Military Service Acts.
- (2) Lack of housing in certain areas.
- (3) Restrictions on liquor. This is marked in some areas.
- (4) Industrial fatigue.
- (5) Lack of proper organisation amongst the unions.
- (6) Lack of communal sense. This is noticeable in South Wales, where there has been a break-away from faith in Parliamentary representation.
- (7) Inconsiderate treatment of women, whose wages are sometimes as low as 13s.
- (8) Delay in granting pensions to soldiers, especially those in Class W Reserve.

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- (9) Raising of the limit of income tax exemption.
- (10) The Workmen's Compensation Act. The maximum of £1 weekly is now inadequate.

The character and effect of the above causes were dealt with by the report, and the recommendations of the Commissioners were as follows:—

- (1) *Food Prices.*—There should be an immediate reduction in price, the increased price of food being borne to some extent by the Government, and a better system of distribution is required.
- (2) *Industrial Councils, &c.*—The principle of the Whitley Report should be adopted; each trade should have constitution.
- (3) Changes with a view to further increase of output should be made the subject of an authoritative statement by the Government.
- (4) Labour should take part in the affairs of the community as partners, rather than as servants.
- (5) The greatest publicity possible should be given to the abolition of Leaving Certificates.
- (6) The Government should make a statement as to the variation of pledges already given.
- (7) The £1 maximum under the Workmen's Compensation Act should be raised.
- (8) Announcements should be made of policy as regards housing.
- (9) A system should be inaugurated whereby skilled supervisors and others on day rates should receive a bonus.
- (10) Closer contact should be set up between employer and employed.
- (11) Pensions Committees should have a larger discretion in their treatment of men discharged from the army.
- (12) Agricultural wages in the Western Area, now as low as 14s. to 17s. a week, should be raised to 25s. a week.
- (13) Coloured labour should not be employed in the ports.
- (14) A higher taxation of wealth is urged by one Commissioner.

The Right Hon. G. N. Barnes, M.P., who prepared a summary of the report addressed to the Prime Minister, said, in conclusion, that the report threw a flood of light upon the conditions of work and of life in the various parts of the country. He was of the opinion that the detail would amply repay the trouble of perusal, and that a comparison would be enlightening with regard to facts associated with industrial life.

CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTIVE SALES, 1916.

ENGLISH C.W.S.

	£
Crumpsall Biscuits, &c.	335,530
Middleton Jam, &c.	823,024
*Soap, &c., Works (Irlam, Dunston, and Silvertown).....	1,997,896
*Flour (Dunston, Silvertown, Oldham, Manchester, Avonmouth, Sowerby Bridge, Halifax, and Slaithwaite).....	11,077,818
*Printing Works (Longsight, Leicester, and Pelaw)	328,496
*Shirts (Broughton and Pelaw)	227,427
*Weaving Sheds (Bury and Radcliffe)	232,825
*Clothing (Leeds, Broughton, and Pelaw)	213,927
*Boots and Shoes (Leicester, Heckmondwike, and Rushden)	948,461
*Cabinet (Broughton and Pelaw)	88,511
Tobacco	970,919
Lard (Hartlepoons).....	232,691
Flannel.....	66,695
Hosiery	191,268
Corsets	55,541
Woollen Cloth	70,602
Brushes and Mats	39,571
Keighley Ironworks	34,800
Dudley Bucket and Fender	43,664
Birtley Tinsplate	7,035
Rochdale Paint	18,801

* Year ended June, 1917.

SCOTTISH C.W.S.

	£
Tailoring.....	35,162
Woollen Shirts	11,981
Artisan Clothing.....	10,169
Mantles	5,699
Hosiery	48,304
Underclothing.....	11,282
Boots.....	376,987
Cabinet	55,664
Brush and Cooperage	8,207
Printing	111,056
Tobacco	352,296
Preserves	165,405
Confectionery	40,287
Flour Mills.....	2,294,087
Soap	221,613
Fish Curing	98,911
Creameries	264,780



ROBERT STEWART,
*Chairman,
Scottish Co-operative Wholesale
Society Limited.*



JOHN PEARSON,
*Secretary,
Scottish Co-operative Wholesale
Society Limited.*

A WIDER PEOPLE'S PARTY.

BY THE RIGHT HON. ARTHUR HENDERSON, M.P.

THE proposed development of the Labour Party from a sectional organisation to a national movement has been alluded to as an "innovation," but in actual fact it is simply the inevitable result of natural evolution hastened by the tremendous changes arising from the great world-war. During the past four years the whole of national and individual life has been dominated by the world-crisis, and great havoc has been wrought to our national institutions, our national ideals and ideas, and to our individual rights and customs. Everything has been brought to the touchstone of the war and its successful conclusion, and many sacrifices have been demanded in its name from the people as a nation and as individuals. Some of these sacrifices have been necessary, others merely expedient, and in some cases they have been altogether unwarranted.

The majority of the people know only too well that the period of reconstruction after the war will be one of far-reaching importance to the future of the nation. They realise that the whole structure of national life will have to be rebuilt, and that the task, if it is to be executed on right and proper lines, will call for all the best qualities of real statesmanship. The great problems of reconstruction—political, social, and industrial—will have to be faced boldly and courageously; audacious and perhaps novel methods of treatment will be required—practical measures inspired by great human ideals, not temporary ameliorations dictated by expediency, nor compromises seeking to serve or safeguard selfish interests. The minds of the people have undergone revolutionary changes, and they are determined that the "will of the people," so long an empty phrase of the political club, shall have a real significance in national affairs. The old statesmanship has failed, and the people seek a new statesmanship. The old parties have failed, and the people seek a new party. It is indeed time that the old order should change, giving place to new. And the new party which the people seek is a people's party—a live national democratic party which shall bring "government of the people by the people for the people."

It is this pressing national need of to-day that the Labour Party proposes to meet by its scheme of organisation and development. Of the three parties which existed before the war the Labour Party came nearest to fulfilling the conditions demanded of a democratic party. It was composed of an organised force of adult men and women drawn almost entirely from the class known as "the workers." It recognised no sex barrier, and was the only party officially committed to the extension of the franchise to all men and women. But it was sectional and not national, and the interpretation of the "working class" was restricted. The new constitution proposes that the party

shall be completely national, and that the term "worker" shall be interpreted in its widest and fullest sense to cover both the manual and the brain worker. When the proposed change has been adopted the Labour Party will be the nearest approach to a real national democratic party that the world has yet known. It will cater for all who produce, whether by hand or by brain, whether men or women.

THE NEW PARTY.

The first change is the fuller recognition of constituency organisations as an essential part of the party's structure. In the past local labour organisations have been admitted to affiliation, but they did not exert any substantial influence on policy, nor were they regarded as being an essential part of the national machinery. Under the new constitution the party will be founded on national trade unions and Socialist societies and local labour organisations. The latter will be the connecting link between the party and the constituencies, and as their number increases they will exert a correspondingly increasing influence on policy.

The second change is the provision to admit individuals to membership. In the past individual membership has been exceedingly limited, and has only been permitted by a few local labour organisations. It is now proposed that individual citizens who are in agreement with the party's policy may enrol themselves as members through the local organisation in their own constituency. The third change will be the special appeal made by the party to the women electors, an appeal which should come with more grace from the Labour Party than from either of the old parties in view of the fact that it has never recognised sex distinction, and was the only political party in the country which included in its platform the extension of the franchise to women on the principle of adult suffrage.

A highly organised party based on democratic representation, strong in numbers and influence, will be an indifferent substitute for the old parties if it is not animated by a clear vision of the world that is to be, and stimulated by firm determination to labour for the common weal. It must have its own policy—local, national, and international—which must be based on the clear and full recognition of the rights and obligations of the individual as a citizen and of the nation as a member of the society of nations. The people ask for security at home and security abroad, freedom at home and freedom abroad. They have answered their nation's call in the hours of distress, have sacrificed life and limb, rights and customs, domestic happiness and personal comfort—everything, indeed, which touches a man's life most intimately and which he prizes most dearly. They have fulfilled their obligation to the State to the full, and all they ask is that the State shall fulfil her obligations to her citizens. Individual freedom, happiness, and contentment mean national

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strength, wealth, and power. International freedom, co-operation, and goodwill mean world-peace and tranquillity.

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL POLICY.

The national policy of the reconstituted Labour Party is sufficiently clearly indicated in the statement that it aims at securing for all producers, whether by hand or brain, the full fruits of their industry, and the most equitable distribution thereof that may be possible upon the basis of the common ownership of the means of production and the best obtainable system of popular administration and control of each industry or service. This is a Socialist formula. But its practical explication will by no means lead to the State Socialism of the earlier propagandists. Industrial democracy, rather than the State organisation of industry, is the ultimate aim we have in view. On all the specific social and industrial problems of the post-war period, ranging from the gradual demobilisation of the fighting forces and the restoration of trade union conditions to the reform of education, the national organisation of agriculture, and a juster method of taxation, the Labour Party's programme is constructive. It insists that the nation can take no step back from the policy of controlling the great industries and services introduced during the war; it urges the people to realise that the capitalistic system of production for profit has been finally discredited and superseded.

Internationalism is a cardinal doctrine of the Labour movement. Our international programme grows out of the war situation. The party stands for a people's peace founded upon the principle of nationality and the right of all nations, small and great, to choose for themselves the form of government under which they will live. We support the proposal to establish a League of Nations pledged to maintain peace in the future; we denounce and repudiate the idea of an economic war after peace is declared, which will revive the old antagonisms and divide the nations once more into opposing camps, leading us back to the old regime of secret diplomacy, militarism, and competitive armaments, and thus make inevitable still more dreadful wars. Believing that the British Empire, notwithstanding its manifest defects and deficiencies, is a great civilising engine in its relations to the backward races and a fertile field for experiment in applying the principle of self-government, the Labour Party does not suffer its internationalism to negate its ideal of inter-dominion co-operation, but it seeks to hasten the day when the Empire will become an alliance of free peoples under democratic Governments. And as a first step to that ideal the party, by its policy in Parliament and its propaganda in the country, sets out to make this country a democratic State.

[The above article appeared in the *Manchester Guardian*, and by permission of the editor and the Right Hon. Arthur Henderson, M.P., we make use of it here.]

BRITISH EMPIRE COTTON.

THE object of the British Cotton Growing Association is to cultivate the supplies of cotton in countries within the British Empire. The Association originated in 1902 when cotton supplies, particularly from the United States, were very low. The scarcity led to an alarming reduction in the production of yarn and cloth in Lancashire, and to extreme poverty among the operatives. The desire of the promoters of the Association was to provide a means to secure at least a large quantity of cotton without having to depend too much upon the cotton plantations of the Southern States of America. The Association became an incorporated body in 1905, and had during its career appealed for a capital of £500,000, the C.W.S. being a subscriber. The whole of this sum has not yet been subscribed. After a period of five years a Government grant of £10,000 per annum ceased on March 31st, 1916, and, as a result of negotiations with the Colonial Office, the Government gave a grant of £1,000 for the season of 1916-17. It was expected that the larger grant would be restored after the war. At the present time the desire of the Association is that its work should be taken over by the Government and carried on as a national necessity. Recently a national committee was formed with this object in view.

The reports of the British Cotton Growing Association give the following approximate estimate of cotton (in bales of 400 pounds each) grown in new fields in the British Empire for the years shown below:—

	1903.	1906.	1910.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
West Africa—							
Gambia	50	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sierra Leone	50	150	—	—	—	—	—
Gold Coast	50	200	100	100	100	100	100
Lagos	500	6,000	5,900	14,000	13,600	6,200	9,300
Southern Nigeria	50	150	300	200	150	100	100
Northern Nigeria	50	1,000	400	2,000	1,000	1,200	10,800
Total	750	7,500	6,700	16,300	14,850	7,600	20,300
East Africa—							
Uganda	No details	No details	12,000	26,000	42,000	25,200	25,100
British East Africa			400	1,000	500	300	200
Nyassaland and Rhodesia..			3,400	7,500	8,000	9,000	8,500
Total	150	3,000	15,800	34,500	50,500	34,500	33,800
West Indies	1,000	5,500	5,500	7,000	6,000	5,600	3,500
Sind	—	1,000	1,000	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	15,000	14,000	10,000	24,000	16,200
Sundry Districts	—	300	500	1,000	1,000	3,500	5,000
Grand Total ...	1,900	17,300	44,500	72,800	82,350	75,200	78,800

POPULATION STATISTICS.

WHILE the population of the United Kingdom has more than doubled itself since 1821, the movement of the population in the three constituent parts of the kingdom has been characterised by strongly marked differences. In England and Wales the population has trebled itself; in Scotland it has more than doubled; whereas that of Ireland has sunk to nearly one-half of the figure recorded in 1841. In 1841 Ireland had a population half as large as that of England and Wales, and over three times that of Scotland. By 1911 Ireland had been so depleted by emigration that the population came below that of Scotland, and amounted to no more than an eighth and a fraction of the number of inhabitants possessed by England and Wales.

THE UNITED KINGDOM CENSUS STATISTICS, 1821-1911.

The figures for 1821 and 1831 are exclusive of the numbers in the Army, Navy, and Merchant Service.

Date of Enumeration.	United Kingdom.			England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Persons.	Persons.
1821.....	20,893,584	10,174,868	10,718,716	12,000,236	2,091,521	6,801,827
1831.....	24,028,584	11,680,532	12,348,052	13,896,797	2,364,386	7,767,401
1841.....	26,730,929	13,060,497	13,670,432	15,914,148	2,620,184	8,196,597
1851.....	27,390,629	13,369,227	14,021,402	17,927,609	2,888,742	6,574,278
1861.....	28,927,485	14,063,477	14,864,008	20,066,224	3,062,294	5,798,967
1871.....	31,484,661	15,301,830	16,182,831	22,712,266	3,360,018	5,412,377
1881.....	34,884,848	16,972,654	17,912,194	25,974,439	3,735,573	5,174,836
1891.....	37,732,922	18,314,571	19,418,351	29,002,525	4,025,647	4,704,750
1901.....	41,458,721	20,102,408	21,356,313	32,527,843	4,472,103	4,458,775
1911.....	45,221,615	21,946,495	23,275,120	36,070,492	4,760,904	4,390,219

In 1821 there were 2,493,423 families or separate occupiers in England and Wales; in 1911, 8,005,290.

INCREASE OR DECREASE PER CENT. OF POPULATION.

As shown by the following table, the twenties, seventies, and nineties of the last century constituted the high-tide periods of increase of population both in England and Wales and in Scotland; whereas Ireland, in the forties, lost practically 20 per cent., or a fifth, and in the fifties another 12 per cent., or close on a third in the course of twenty years, the next highest period of depletion being the eighties with 9 per cent. decrease. The depletion, which has continued at

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varying rates for nigh on three-quarters of a century, would appear to have almost reached its termination.

Census Year.	Increase or Decrease per cent. of Population.			
	United Kingdom.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
1821	—	—	—	—
1831	15·0	15·8	13·0	14·2
1841	11·2	14·3	10·8	5·2
1851	2·5	12·7	10·2	—19·8
1861	5·6	11·9	6·0	—11·8
1871	8·8	13·2	9·7	— 6·7
1881	10·8	14·4	11·2	— 4·4
1891	8·2	11·7	7·8	— 9·1
1901	9·9	12·2	11·1	— 5·2
1911	9·1	10·9	6·5	— 1·5

DENSITY OF POPULATION.

In 1911 England and Wales had exactly three times as many persons per square mile as in 1821, and Scotland over two times; whereas Ireland, which, in the earlier part of last century, had an average density (in proportion to area) as large as that of England and Wales, and practically three times the density of Scotland, now ranks the last of the three.

Persons per Square Mile.

Census Year.	United Kingdom (120,724 square miles).	England and Wales (58,340 square miles).	Scotland (29,798 square miles).	Ireland (32,586 square miles).
1821	173	206	70	209
1831	199	238	79	238
1841	221	273	88	251
1851	227	307	97	201
1861	240	344	103	178
1871	261	389	113	166
1881	289	445	125	159
1891	313	497	135	144
1901	343	558	150	137
1911	375	618	160	135

In 1821 there was an average of 3·11 acres per person in England and Wales; in 1911 the average had decreased to 1·04.

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THE GREAT TOWNS AND THEIR GROWTH.

The march of urbanisation in England and Wales is shown most distinctly by the number and growth of the towns, 97 of which had, in 1911, a population of over 50,000 each. Arranged according to the order of their population, the list is as follows:—

	POPULATION.			Increase (+) or Decrease (–) per cent. in Intercensal Periods.	
	1891.	1901.	1911.	Between 1891-1901.	Between 1901-1911.
Total of 97 Urban Districts	13,779,848	15,886,874	17,251,009	+ 15·3	+ 8·3
London (Adminis- trative County)....	4,227,954	4,536,267	4,521,685	+ 7·3	– 0·3
Liverpool	C.B. 644,243	704,134	746,421	+ 9·3	+ 6·0
Manchester	C.B. 575,741	644,873	714,333	+ 12·0	+ 10·8
Birmingham	C.B. 478,922	523,179	525,833	+ 9·2	+ 0·5
Sheffield	C.B. 339,170	409,070	454,632	+ 20·6	+ 11·1
Leeds	C.B. 367,505	428,968	445,550	+ 16·7	+ 3·9
Bristol	C.B. 296,356	339,042	357,048	+ 14·4	+ 5·3
West Ham	C.B. 204,903	267,358	289,030	+ 30·5	+ 8·1
Bradford	C.B. 265,728	279,767	288,458	+ 5·3	+ 3·1
Kingston-on-Hull. C.B.	200,472	240,259	277,991	+ 19·8	+ 15·7
Newcastle-on-Tyne C.B.	208,194	247,023	266,603	+ 18·7	+ 7·9
Nottingham	C.B. 213,877	239,743	259,904	+ 12·1	+ 8·4
Stoke-on-Trent	C.B. 183,977	214,712	234,534	+ 16·7	+ 9·2
Salford	C.B. 198,139	220,957	231,357	+ 11·5	+ 4·7
Portsmouth	C.B. 159,981	188,928	231,141	+ 18·1	+ 22·3
Leicester	C.B. 174,624	211,579	227,222	+ 21·2	+ 7·4
Cardiff	C.B. 128,915	164,333	182,259	+ 27·5	+ 10·9
Bolton	C.B. 146,487	168,215	180,851	+ 14·8	+ 7·5
Croydon	C.B. 102,695	133,895	169,551	+ 30·4	+ 26·6
Willesden	U.D. 61,265	114,811	154,214	+ 87·4	+ 34·3
Rhondda	U.D. 88,351	113,735	152,781	+ 28·7	+ 34·3
Sunderland	C.B. 131,686	146,077	151,159	+ 10·9	+ 3·5
Oldham	C.B. 131,463	137,246	147,483	+ 4·4	+ 7·5
Tottenham	U.D. 71,672	102,703	137,418	+ 43·3	+ 33·8
East Ham	M.B. 32,703	96,008	133,487	+ 193·6	+ 39·0
Blackburn	C.B. 121,318	129,216	133,052	+ 6·5	+ 3·0
Brighton	C.B. 115,873	123,478	131,237	+ 6·6	+ 6·3
Birkenhead	C.B. 99,857	110,915	130,794	+ 11·1	+ 17·9
Leyton	U.D. 63,106	98,912	124,735	+ 56·7	+ 26·1
Walthamstow	U.D. 46,346	95,131	124,580	+ 105·3	+ 31·0
Derby	C.B. 98,602	114,848	123,410	+ 16·5	+ 7·5
Norwich	C.B. 102,890	113,922	121,478	+ 10·7	+ 6·6
Southampton	C.B. 82,126	104,824	119,012	+ 27·6	+ 13·5
Preston	C.B. 107,573	112,989	117,088	+ 5·0	+ 3·6
Gateshead	C.B. 85,692	109,888	116,917	+ 28·2	+ 6·4
Swansea	C.B. 91,034	94,537	114,663	+ 3·8	+ 21·3
Plymouth	C.B. 88,931	107,636	112,030	+ 21·0	+ 4·1
Stockport	C.B. 80,778	92,832	108,682	+ 14·9	+ 17·1
South Shields	C.B. 81,809	100,858	108,647	+ 23·3	+ 7·7
Huddersfield	C.B. 95,420	95,047	107,821	– 0·4	+ 13·4
Coventry	C.B. 58,503	69,978	106,349	+ 19·6	+ 52·0
Burnley	C.B. 87,016	97,043	106,322	+ 11·5	+ 9·6
Middlesbrough	C.B. 75,532	91,302	104,767	+ 20·9	+ 14·7
Halifax	C.B. 97,715	104,944	101,553	+ 7·4	– 3·2
St. Helens	C.B. 72,413	84,410	96,551	+ 16·6	+ 14·4
Wolverhampton	C.B. 82,662	94,187	95,328	+ 13·9	+ 1·2
Walsall	C.B. 71,789	86,430	92,115	+ 20·4	+ 6·6
Rochdale	C.B. 76,161	83,114	91,428	+ 9·1	+ 10·0
Northampton	C.B. 75,075	87,021	90,064	+ 15·9	+ 3·5

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THE GREAT TOWNS AND THEIR GROWTH—continued.

	POPULATION.			Increase (+ or Decrease (-) per cent. in Intercensal Periods.	
	1891.	1901.	1911.	Between 1891-1901.	Between 1901-1911.
Wigan C.B.	73,413	82,428	89,152	+ 12·3	+ 8·2
Hornsey M.B.	44,523	72,056	84,592	+ 61·8	+ 17·4
Newport (Mon.) . . C.B.	54,707	67,270	83,691	+ 23·0	+ 24·4
York C.B.	67,841	77,914	82,282	+ 14·8	+ 5·6
Devonport C.B.	55,986	70,437	81,678	+ 25·8	+ 16·0
King's Norton and Northfield U.D.	28,300	57,122	81,153	+ 101·8	+ 42·1
Merthyr Tydfil . . C.B.	59,004	69,228	80,990	+ 17·3	+ 17·0
Bournemouth . . . C.B.	45,268	59,762	78,674	+ 32·0	+ 31·6
Wallasey M.B.	33,229	53,579	78,504	+ 61·2	+ 46·5
Ilford U.D.	10,922	41,244	78,188	+ 277·6	+ 89·6
Reading C.B.	60,054	72,217	75,198	+ 20·3	+ 4·1
Aston Manor . . . M.B.	68,639	77,326	75,029	+ 12·7	- 3·0
Grimsby C.B.	51,934	63,138	74,659	+ 21·6	+ 18·2
Ipswich C.B.	57,433	66,630	73,932	+ 16·0	+ 11·0
Warrington C.B.	55,288	64,242	72,166	+ 16·2	+ 12·3
Smethwick C.B.	36,106	54,539	70,694	+ 51·1	+ 29·6
Bootle C.B.	49,888	60,235	69,876	+ 20·7	+ 16·0
Handsworth (Staffs.) U.D.	32,756	52,921	68,610	+ 61·6	+ 29·6
West Bromwich . . C.B.	59,538	65,175	68,332	+ 9·5	+ 4·8
Edmonton U.D.	25,381	46,899	64,797	+ 84·8	+ 38·2
West Hartlepool . C.B.	42,815	62,627	63,923	+ 46·3	+ 2·1
Barrow-in-Furness C.B.	51,712	57,586	63,770	+ 11·4	+ 10·7
Southend-on-Sea . M.B.	13,242	28,857	62,713	+ 117·9	+ 117·3
Rotherham C.B.	42,061	54,349	62,483	+ 29·2	+ 15·0
Ealing M.B.	23,979	33,031	61,222	+ 37·7	+ 85·3
Hastings C.B.	63,072	65,528	61,145	+ 3·9	- 6·7
Tynemouth C.B.	46,588	51,366	58,816	+ 10·3	+ 14·5
Bury C.B.	57,212	58,029	58,648	+ 1·4	+ 1·1
Blackpool C.B.	23,846	47,348	58,371	+ 98·6	+ 23·3
Acton U.D.	24,206	37,744	57,497	+ 55·9	+ 52·3
Lincoln C.B.	41,491	48,784	57,285	+ 17·6	+ 17·4
Enfield U.D.	31,536	42,738	56,338	+ 35·5	+ 31·8
Great Yarmouth . C.B.	49,334	51,316	55,905	+ 4·0	+ 8·9
Darlington M.B.	38,060	44,511	55,631	+ 16·9	+ 25·0
Wimbledon M.B.	25,777	41,652	54,966	+ 61·6	+ 32·0
Dewsbury M.B.	51,852	51,246	53,351	- 1·2	+ 4·1
Oxford C.B.	45,742	49,336	53,048	+ 7·9	+ 7·5
Eastbourne C.B.	35,062	43,574	52,542	+ 24·3	+ 20·6
Gillingham M.B.	28,040	42,745	52,252	+ 52·4	+ 22·2
Stockton-on-Tees . M.B.	49,708	51,478	52,154	+ 3·6	+ 1·3
Southport C.B.	41,415	48,083	51,643	+ 16·1	+ 7·4
Wakefield M.B.	43,914	48,256	51,511	+ 9·9	+ 6·7
Dudley C.B.	45,724	48,733	51,079	+ 6·6	+ 4·8
Aberdare U.D.	38,431	43,365	50,830	+ 12·8	+ 17·2
Swindon M.B.	33,001	45,006	50,751	+ 36·4	+ 12·8
Bath C.B.	51,844	49,839	50,721	- 3·9	+ 1·8
Barnsley M.B.	35,427	41,086	50,614	+ 16·0	+ 23·2
Gloucester C.B.	41,303	47,955	50,035	+ 16·1	+ 4·3

The list of 97 towns includes all the County Boroughs except the following:—

Exeter	45,766	47,185	48,664	+ 3·1	+ 3·1
Burton-on-Trent . .	46,047	50,386	48,266	+ 9·4	- 4·2
Worcester	42,908	46,624	47,982	+ 8·7	+ 2·9
Chester	37,105	38,309	39,028	+ 3·2	+ 1·9
Canterbury	23,062	24,899	24,626	+ 8·0	- 1·1

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DENSITY OF POPULATION IN COUNTIES.

The ten most thickly-populated counties are:—

	Persons per Square Mile.	
	1901.	1911.
London	38,772	38,680
Middlesex	3,416	4,848
Lancashire	2,345	2,554
Glamorganshire	1,060	1,383
Durham	1,171	1,350
Surrey	905	1,172
Staffordshire	1,063	1,158
Warwickshire.....	1,037	1,147
Yorkshire (W.R.).....	997	1,099
Cheshire.....	815	931

The ten most thinly-populated counties are:—

	Persons per Square Mile.	
	1901.	1911.
Huntingdonshire	148	152
Pembrokeshire	143	146
Herefordshire.....	136	136
Rutlandshire.....	130	134
Cardiganshire.....	88	86
Brecknockshire.....	74	81
Westmorland.....	81	81
Merionethshire	74	69
Montgomeryshire	69	67
Radnorshire	49	48

URBAN AND RURAL DISTRICTS.

The following table shows the march of urbanisation since the middle of last century by the comparative figures of urban and rural districts. In 1851 the population was pretty evenly divided between the two. At the 1911 census the urban districts embraced over three-fourths of the population in England and Wales.

	POPULATION.			Proportion per cent. to Total Population of England and Wales.	
	England and Wales.	Urban Districts.	Rural Districts.	Urban Districts.	Rural Districts.
		As constituted at each Census.			
*1851	17,927,609	8,990,809	8,936,800	50·2	49·8
*1861	20,066,224	10,960,998	9,105,226	54·6	45·4
*1871	22,712,266	14,041,404	8,670,862	61·8	38·2
1881	25,974,439	17,636,646	8,337,793	67·9	32·1
1891	29,002,525	20,895,504	8,107,021	72·0	28·0
1901	32,527,843	25,058,355	7,469,488	77·0	23·0
1911	36,070,492	28,162,936	7,907,556	78·1	21·9

* The figures for the aggregate of urban and rural areas for the censuses of 1851-71 are only approximations.

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AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION.

As regards England and Wales it may be noted that children and persons under 20 years of age constitute 39·88 per cent. of the population. In Scotland the proportion is somewhat higher, viz., 41·99 per cent., and in Ireland a trifle lower, viz., 39·26 per cent., according to the last census. Another circumstance worth noting is the declining proportion of juveniles (due to the reduced birth-rate), and the increasing proportion of adults both in the working period of life and beyond. Thus, a calculation based on the census figures of the United Kingdom gives the following results:—

Proportion of Population—	1891.		1901.		1911.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
Under 20 years of age	45·19	...	42·37	...	40·04	...
Between 20 and 55 years of age.....	43·92	...	46·57	...	47·89	...
Of 55 years and upwards.....	10·87	...	11·05	...	12·05	...

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION.

THE SURPLUS POPULATION OF FEMALES.

In view of the fact that more male infants than females are born in this country, the circumstance that the population of England and Wales contained at the last census an excess of 1,179,276 females over males, while the United Kingdom as a whole showed an excess of 1,328,625, must be regarded as one of the ironies of civilisation, and is due to various causes, including the larger migration of males, as well as the industrial mortality, and so forth. Taking the comparative figures for the three parts of the kingdom we find that the population of Scotland has shown the greatest excess of females, and that of Ireland the least; Ireland, moreover, contrasting with Scotland and England and Wales by reason of being the only part of the United Kingdom where the sexes at the last census were almost equal in point of number, whereas England and Wales figures as the only part where the excess of females shows itself to be higher in the twentieth century than in the early part of the nineteenth.

	Females to 1,000 Males.			
	United Kingdom.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
1821	1,053	1,036	1,128	1,035
1831	1,057	1,040	1,121	1,047
1841	1,047	1,046	1,109	1,028
1851	1,049	1,042	1,100	1,046
1861	1,057	1,053	1,112	1,044
1871	1,058	1,054	1,096	1,050
1881	1,055	1,055	1,076	1,043
1891	1,060	1,064	1,072	1,029
1901	1,062	1,068	1,057	1,027
1911	1,061	1,068	1,062	1,003

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SEX PROPORTION ABROAD.

How widely the sex proportion of populations vary may be seen from the nearest census figures of various countries. It will also be noted that it is the oldest and the youngest countries which are characterised by a numerical inferiority in the proportion of females. As regards India and Japan, it is possible to attribute this phenomenon to the greater importance attached to male offspring, and to the consequently greater care taken to preserve the male children. In the youngest countries the preponderance of males is related, of course, to the influx of immigrants, amongst whom those of the male sex always constitute the greater proportion.

Country.	Number of Females to 1,000 Males.	Country.	Number of Females to 1,000 Males.
Portugal.....	1,107	The Netherlands.....	1,021
Norway.....	1,099	Belgium.....	1,017
England and Wales.....	1,068	Ireland.....	1,004
Scotland.....	1,063	Japan.....	979
Denmark.....	1,061	India.....	953
Sweden.....	1,046	Union of South Africa.....	946
Italy.....	1,037	United States.....	943
Austria.....	1,036	Australian Commonwealth	926
France.....	1,034	New Zealand.....	895
Switzerland.....	1,034	Ceylon.....	887
German Empire.....	1,026	Dominion of Canada.....	886

THE MATRIMONIAL POSITION.

According to the last census the married population of England and Wales comprised 13,126,070 persons, or 36 per cent. of the total, and the widowed, 1,980,615, or nearly 5½ per cent. The number of wives in excess of the husbands figured at 134,498, while the widows (1,364,804) outnumbered the widowers (615,811) by 121 per cent., showing on an average two husbands buried for one wife entombed. Meanwhile, a retrospective glance reveals a lessened proportion of widowed, a practically stationary proportion of married, combined with a slightly increased proportion of unmarried. Taking the proportion per 1,000 of each state and sex aged 20 years and upwards the comparative figures stand as follows:—

	Males.			Females.		
	1891.	1901.	1911.	1891.	1901.	1911.
Unmarried.....	291	305	307	281	298	302
Married.....	644	633	633	585	576	579
Widowed.....	65	62	60	134	126	119

The fact that the marriage-rate has slightly diminished, while the marriageable proportion of the population has increased owing to the

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changed age distribution, suffices to show the complex factors at work. Meantime, the rising tendency of the marriage age is illustrated by the fact that the 633 married males in 1901 included 29 aged 20-25, 177 aged 25-35, 177 aged 35-45, and 129 aged 45-55; whereas in 1911 the numbers at the corresponding ages figured at 21, 167, 184, and 135 respectively.

NATALITY OF THE POPULATION OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

Of the total population of England and Wales close on 96½ per cent. were born in this country (including 1 per cent. whose birthplaces were not stated), while the number born in other parts of the United Kingdom or in the British Colonies amounted to 2½ per cent., and the foreign-born to 1 per cent. The specific census figures are as follows:—

	Persons.
Total Population of England and Wales	36,070,492
Born in England and Wales	34,794,757
„ elsewhere	1,275,735
Born in Scotland.....	321,825
„ Ireland	375,325
„ Islands in the British Seas	36,762
„ British Colonies and India.....	161,502
„ Foreign Countries.....	373,516
Born at Sea.....	6,805

Although the proportional numbers of Scottish and of foreign-born persons showed a decline, the actual numbers were about 5,000 and about 34,000 respectively in excess of the corresponding numbers in 1901, while the Irish-born were fewer by over 50,000 than was the case ten years before. Of those born in foreign countries 88,686 were British subjects, the actual number of foreigners being 284,830.

Of the total population of London (4,521,685 persons) no fewer than 1,436,686 were born outside the county area, the proportion of native-born being 68·2 per cent., and the non-native-born 31·8 per cent., or nearly one-third.

Of the 285,060 foreigners in England and Wales at the last census, Russia, Germany, France, Italy, the United States, Austria, and Switzerland furnished 82½ per cent. of the total.

Where Born.	Number.	Per cent. of Total Foreigners in England and Wales.
Russia (including Russian Poland).....	95,451	33·5
Germany.....	53,324	18·7
France.....	28,827	10·1
Italy.....	20,389	7·2
United States	13,637	4·8
Austria	13,230	4·6
Switzerland	10,267	3·6

In London the foreigners of all nationalities numbered 153,128, or 53·7 per cent. of the total in England and Wales, no fewer than 53,060 being congregated in the borough of Stepney, and 43,925 of these being natives of Russia and Russian Poland.

As regards chief avocations, 34,407 male foreigners in England and Wales were occupied as tailors, boot, shoe, and slipper makers, &c., 19,551 as waiters and servants, 18,111 in the conveyance of men, goods, and messages, 14,534 in connection with the supply of food, tobacco, &c., 13,237 in commercial occupations, and 9,010 in professional; while tailoring, dressmaking, &c., occupied 11,572 foreign females, domestic offices and services 14,042, and professional occupations 8,828.



NEW ALLOTMENTS.

IN the House of Commons, November 6th, 1917, it was stated that 180,636 allotments have been provided under the Cultivation of Lands Order, the total area taken over being 13,282 acres. The Board of Agriculture had every hope that by making use of the provisions of the Defence of the Realm (Acquisition of Land) Act, 1916, it will be possible to secure the retention as allotments of most of the land taken over up to and including the season of 1920, except in those cases in which it is proved that the land is required for building purposes at an earlier date. The Board would urge local authorities to make full use of their powers this winter to extend the provision of allotments, and were glad to see that allotment holders are being organised into a national association. The Government appreciated fully the importance of developing the allotment movement on a permanent basis.



WAR DECLINE IN DRUNKENNESS.

A HOME Office return, issued during November, shows a marked decrease in convictions for drunkenness. This began in the latter months of 1914, and has been accentuated since. The total number of convictions for drunkenness in England and Wales in 1916 was 84,191, as compared with 135,811 in 1915—a decrease of 51,620, or 38 per cent., following a decrease of 48,017, or 26 per cent., in the preceding year. The total of 84,191 is the lowest recorded for nearly fifty years, and is 55 per cent. below the total for 1913. The number of males convicted in 1913 was 153,112, and it fell to 62,946 in 1916. There were 35,765 females convicted in 1913, and 21,245 in 1916.

THE INDUSTRIAL BATTLEFIELD.

ANNUAL CASUALTY LIST.

THE official record of 67,152 persons killed and 2,156,671 injured during the course of 15 years (1899-1913) constitutes an industrial casualty list suggestive of the carnage of warfare, and reveals the perils associated with capitalistic industry working at high pressure—perils of which the worker bears the full brunt. But portentous as the figures are, they may be said to indicate only a fractional part of the afflictions sustained. If to the casualty list of deaths and injuries could be added the full tale of shortened lives and shattered health, it would be seen that the ancient Mars, compared with the modern Moloch as a pygmy to a Colossus, whose range of appliances is as wide as the industrial sphere itself, in which every new development signifies a new jeopardy, tending not only to counterbalance the gain from remedial expedients, but also to swell the casualty list, whose figures bear witness to the responsibility of legislators who, despite the knowledge that lives are being lost in thousands, and that persons are being injured by the hundred thousand, connive at this annual holocaust by inadequate preventive measures. What the industrial toll of lives and personal injuries has been year by year may be seen from the official figures:—

The figures become still more portentous when we compare the annual average for the first five and last five years on the list:—

1899-1903.—Annual Average
of Persons Killed 4,532·8

1909-1913.—Annual Average
of Persons Killed 4,651·8

Annual Average Increase 119·0

1899-1903.—Annual Average
of Persons Injured 107,130

1909-1913.—Annual Average
of Persons Injured 186,558

Annual Average Increase 79,428

The staggering increase in the annual average figure of persons injured cannot possibly be all attributed to improved registration consequent on a better knowledge of various Acts and a better enforcement of their provisions. The increase in the annual average of fatal accidents is quite sufficient to suggest an increase in accidents non-fatal, and to show that profits take precedence over security to life and limb.

A deeper insight into matters is afforded by the comparative averages for different branches of industry. (See next page).

Year.	Persons Killed.	Persons Injured.
1899.....	4,619	96,369
1900.....	4,753	104,303
1901.....	4,622	107,286
1902.....	4,516	112,128
1903.....	4,154	115,564
1904.....	3,985	115,515
1905.....	4,268	122,386
1906.....	4,369	135,693
1907.....	4,453	156,278
1908.....	4,154	158,356
1909.....	4,133	154,357
1910.....	4,704	167,653
1911.....	4,307	190,764
1912.....	5,252	197,958
1913.....	4,863	222,061

The figures show that the seafaring, coal-mining, factory and workshop industries, and the railway service have the highest recorded number of fatal accidents, and that while the total annual average of persons killed in quarries, in seafaring, in the railway service, and in industries under the Notice of Accidents Acts, and so forth, has diminished, the total increase in other branches of industry suffices to show a net increase per year of 121 persons killed.

Taking next the official figures of persons injured, and working out the averages, we get the results as shown in second table on next page.

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ANNUAL AVERAGE OF PERSONS KILLED.

	1899-1903.	1909-1913.	Increase.	Decrease.
Factory and Workshops Acts—				
Factories and Workshops	776.6	874.0	97.4	—
Docks, Wharves, and Quays....	130.0	150.6	20.6	—
Buildings	86.2	110.2	24.0	—
Other Works	26.8	20.6	—	6.2
Coal-mines Regulation Acts—				
Underground Workers	894.8	1348.0	453.2	—
Surface Workers	130.2	156.4	26.2	—
Metalliferous Mines Act.....	35.6	40.2	4.6	—
Quarries Act	111.2	85.4	—	25.8
Shipping—				
Merchant Vessels.....	1446.6	1185.8	—	260.8
Fishing Vessels	272.8	237.8	—	35.0
Railway Servants	552.4	420.8	—	131.6
Industries under Notice of Acci- dents Acts	67.6	22.0	—	45.6
	—	—	626.0	505.0

ANNUAL AVERAGE OF PERSONS INJURED.

	1899-1903.	1909-1913.	Increase.	Decrease.
Factory and Workshops Acts—				
Factories and Workshops	*69,985.0	*140,511.2	70,526.2	—
Docks, Wharves, and Quays....	*4,587.2	*8,956.2	4,369.0	—
Buildings	*1,654.0	*1,822.0	168.0	—
Other Works	*3,732.2	*724.2	—	3,008.0
Coal-mines Regulation Acts—				
Underground Workers	3,557.8	4,985.6	1,427.8	—
Surface Workers	466.2	720.4	254.2	—
Metalliferous Mines Act.....	286.6	249.6	—	37.0
Quarries Act	1,175.8	1,257.8	82.0	—
Shipping—				
Merchant Vessels.....	2,453.8	6,299.8	3,846.0	—
Fishing Vessels	139.6	509.0	369.4	—
Railway Servants	14,846.8	26,905.4	12,058.6	—
Industries under Notice of Acci- dents Acts	1,926.0	710.8	—	1,215.2
	104,811.0	193,652.0	93,101.2	4,260.2

* Owing to the absence of comparative figures for five years, in the case of injuries under the Factory and Workshops Acts, the average of four years (1899-1902 and 1910-1913) has been taken instead.

Here, then, we have a net increase of no fewer than 88,841 recorded non-fatal accidents per annum. Add to this the increase signified by the information (appended in the shape of a footnote to the official figures) that the number of persons injured by non-fatal accidents at mines and

quarries under the Notice of Accidents Act, 1906, rose from 148,067 in 1908 to 184,202 in 1913, and the casualty list begins to be seen in its true dimensions. In the course of six years the sum total of persons notified under the aforesaid Act as having been injured at mines and quarries amounted

to 988,149, or close on a million, the annual average working out at 164,691. Meanwhile, the official intimation with regard to the recorded increase in shipping casualties that the increase in the years 1908-13 can only be ascribed to the application of the Workmen's Compensation Act to seamen, and to the increased importance thereby attached to an immediate record of injury, may be regarded as evidence showing the clamant necessity for the Acts which have led to extended revelation of the range of industrial casualties, and of the crying need for drastic measures for their minimisation. In this connection one may point to the fact that of 38,721 cases of persons injured reported to certifying surgeons as having occurred in textile factories in the five years 1909-13, no fewer than 36,876, or 95 per cent., were due to "machinery moved by mechanical power;" whilst of 117,160 cases reported to certifying surgeons in the same period as having occurred in metal and machine manufactories, 88,231, or 75 per cent., were due to a similar cause; whilst the number of cases due to "hot liquid molten metal" amounted to 21,678, or 18 per cent. of the total. Needless to state, workpeople don't go to certifying surgeons without cause, and when we find that the yearly average number of injuries from machinery reported to certifying surgeons as having occurred in textile factories rose from 4,378 in 1901-5 to 7,375 in the period 1909-13, and that the average yearly number of injuries from mechanism reported to certifying surgeons during the same period as having occurred in metal and machine-making shops increased from 11,073 to 17,646, while average yearly injuries reported as due to "hot liquid molten metal" increased from 162 to 4,335 in the same period, the facts leave no scope for debate as to the urgent need of adequate safeguards and the criminality of tackling the evil at the tail end.

INDUSTRIAL POISONING.

In industrial poisoning we have special phases of industrial danger to

health and vitality, the extent of which may be gauged for the period 1899-1913 by the total of 11,391 cases and 631 deaths reported under the Factory and Workshops Acts, the predominance of lead poisoning being attested by 10,316 cases and 452 deaths therefrom. The first five years of the period show a total of 4,751 reported cases from all causes, as compared with 3,234 reported cases in the last five years, or a decrease from an annual average of 950 to one of 646. If the figures closely correspond to the actual state of affairs, the reduction shows both what may be done and what still remains to do, while the circumstance that the total deaths from industrial poisoning have increased from 195 in the first five years of the period to 223 in the last (the average year's deaths being 39 in the one quinquennium and 44 in the other) points to the danger of delay. In the meantime, the fact that reports of phosphorus poisoning are now conspicuous by their absence (not a solitary death figuring in the report for the years 1909-13, nor a solitary case for the years 1910-13) is the sort of thing calculated to spur on social reformers to further efforts.

IN WAR-TIME.

The latest official statistics available at the time we go to press record an increase of casualties on the industrial battlefield during the war period. "During the eleven months ended November, 1917, the total number of workpeople reported as killed in the course of their employment was 3,077, as compared with 2,997 in the corresponding period of 1916." "During the eleven months ended November, 1917, the total number of cases of poisoning and of anthrax reported under the Factory and Workshops Act was 623, as compared with 608 in the corresponding period of 1916. The number of deaths in 1917 was 79, as compared with 89 in 1916." In addition 53 cases of lead poisoning (including 17 deaths) are also recorded, as compared with 69 cases (including 20 deaths) for the corresponding period in the previous year.

VALUE OF SPORT IN WAR AND PEACE.

BY J. R. CLEGG.

IT is a truism that this war has taught us many things. One of them is the value of sport. And by one of the countless ironies encountered since that fateful day in August, 1914, the very men who might have been expected to frown most severely upon sports and pastimes were actually the first to realise that our indulgence in athletic pursuits, instead of being a sign of national decadence, had in reality been an important factor in the gigantic task of training an army whose size and efficiency have been the wonder and the admiration of all nations, whether they are with us or against us.

This discovery was made by the military authorities, and, moreover, it was made at a time when there was a suspicion that our young men were too greatly attached to games like football to give heed to the call the nation was making upon them. It did not come with startling force upon the harassed organisers of Kitchener's Army. No, it was merely due to the gradual appreciation of the fact that of the men who flocked into the army those who had taken an active part in open-air exercises were the more readily converted into efficient soldiers. The testimony on this point was as unexpected in some cases as it was handsome in others. Thus, a well-known brigadier in command of a big training camp was, in the early days of the war, notorious for his emphatic condemnation of those who spent their Saturday afternoons at football matches instead of preparing themselves for the day when they would have to shoulder a rifle. He had apparently taken his cue from a misguided philanthropist who conceived it to be his immediate mission in life to stop all outdoor recreation until after the war, but in the space of a few months he did not hesitate to bless that which he had previously cursed with such fluency. The explanation of this may be found in the testimony of an officer who was a member of the little force which put up such a glorious fight in the retreat from Mons. Referring to those early days of the war, he said:—"The best men in my company I found were the sportsmen; they were physically fitter and more reliable than the bookworms; they knew exactly what to do in an emergency, and did it at once. The nearest approach to a ready-made soldier is the man who is good at games. Give me that man before any other."

Testimonials of a certain kind are notoriously worthless, and I place no great reliance on them. Yet there is, in the face of

the extraordinary revulsion which took place in the minds of civilian-soldiers, as well as of men belonging to the original army, not a little value in what another soldier said on the subject of sport at a time when there was uncertainty as to the place sport ought to hold in our national life. "I now have the utmost respect for the games' spirit," he wrote, "and I am convinced that the war will be won by the Allies, very largely because of the sporting instinct of the British people. The self-discipline which is necessary if a man is to be a successful footballer or cricketer obviously is closely akin to the discipline of a regiment; but it is not this alone which causes sport to be of value to a nation. Apart altogether from the discipline and the healthy exercise which games give to those who play them, there are qualities of fortitude, endurance, cheeriness, and alertness which help to produce the good soldier from the good sportsman. In my regiment the best soldiers are undoubtedly the men who have played games. Their movements are quicker, the correspondence between their minds and their actions is closer, and they are wonderfully good-tempered and forbearing."

II. THE EXTENT OF THE ASSET.

Now that we so glibly speak of millions of men, the danger of being led into making exaggerated statements must be fairly obvious. I will, however, venture to assert that at least a million of the men who joined the forces in the first two years had actively indulged in the delights of football, and that since conscription was enforced another million men have been converted to the game through the influence of the military authorities.

One of the fallacies of the period immediately preceding the outbreak of hostilities was that the people of this country, and more especially the masses, were spectators of, rather than active participants in, the game of football. There was some excuse for this belief. The attendances at some of the big matches in the decade before the war were of staggering proportions, and the astounding figures announced from time to time were well calculated to create misapprehension. Thus, at an international match played between Scotland and England at Hampden Park, Glasgow, on March 23rd, 1912, there were 127,307 spectators, and the total receipts fell only £3 short of £7,000. Four years earlier, to witness a similar encounter, there were 121,452 onlookers, the receipts amounting to £6,762. 10s. Large as these figures are they have been greatly exceeded as far as receipts are concerned, for on April 19th, 1913, the final tie for the English Cup, between Aston Villa and Sunderland, attracted to the Crystal Palace a crowd of 120,028 people, who paid the sum of £9,406. 9s. for their afternoon's entertainment. This

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constitutes a record for the United Kingdom. There have been many instances where the attendance has exceeded fifty thousand, notably in London, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, and Birmingham. No wonder, then, that critics of the spectacular game should jump to the conclusion that all the world was looking on instead of playing the game themselves.

Until it became necessary, in connection with litigation respecting the alleged infringement of a patent football, to get at something more than a rough idea of the number of football clubs in Great Britain and Ireland, I question whether anyone interested in the game had anything approximating to a clear notion of the extent to which football was played in these isles. Researches, made with much ingenuity and tested by official publications, disclosed the number of recognised clubs to be as under:—

Affiliated Clubs in England	14,000
Scottish Association	131
Scottish Junior Association	219
Scottish Juvenile Association	187
Affiliated Clubs in Wales	750
Irish Association	393
Affiliated Rugby Clubs	1,500
Total.....	<u>19,800</u>

These figures were taken from pre-war records, and can be verified. One would think that this huge number included every club. This is not the case by any means. For example, football was played at 5,750 boys' boarding and private schools, 15,000 boys' elementary schools, and 1,300 boys' secondary schools. Again, these figures were obtained from official or reliable sources, namely, the Blue Book issued by the Board of Education, and the records kept by firms in touch with private scholastic establishments. Further, careful investigation in various centres justified the estimate that there are no fewer than about 30,000 unaffiliated clubs—clubs not attached to any organised or recognised body. It was estimated by experts and the firms who make them that the output in Great Britain and Ireland each year reached the astonishing aggregate of 1,250,000 footballs. These balls were not bought to be used as ornaments; they were kicked about, and in the process they assisted to strengthen the frames and mould the characters of hundreds of thousands of boys and young men. Truly, if the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton, the battle of the Marne was won in the football enclosures, the unfenced fields, the school playgrounds, and the waste lands of this country. During several years preceding the war the number of junior football clubs in large centres was only limited by the inability to secure suitable grounds, due mainly to the never-ending encroachments of the

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builder. And yet, in spite of this, young men were severely enjoined to play rather than watch football.

III. A UNIVERSAL GAME.

Other countries, not even excepting Germany and Austria, must have suspected that there was something in football after all; for if some of their *savants* were prone to sneer at our "excessive indulgence in sport" and our "readiness to sacrifice everything to the cultivation of pleasure and excellence in sport," a serious effort was made by several Continental countries to popularise football. As a matter of fact no nation has striven more earnestly than Germany to improve its standard of performance in sport. Some sixteen years ago, when Germany sent a team over to Manchester to take part in an international match, the Teutons could not play the game except in a loutish kind of way, and were easily overcome; but long before the war they had thrown themselves into the task of getting on terms even with our crack clubs, and football, along with other athletic sports, was fostered in every possible way. The Germans had recognised the value of outdoor pastimes and field games.

In the light of what has happened since the nations began to play the sterner game of war it is not uninteresting to recall that in Germany, and especially in Austria, English football teams had many an unpleasant experience, arising from the fact that the opposing players and their bitterly partisan supporters were the worst losers imaginable. In the season before more serious hostilities were entered upon English amateur teams only played Belgium, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark. With the French there have been international encounters under both codes, and the rivalry has been renewed on German soil since the war began by French dragoons and a side selected from an English convoy, the game taking place in a part of reconquered Alsace. In the same way British and Italian troops opposed each other not long before the great Isonzo offensive. With the exception of the Balkan States football has spread all over Europe within the last fifteen years, and was getting a firm hold as far away as Moscow prior to the war.

In the Commonwealth, New Zealand, and Canada, football has appealed with compelling force, though the national game in the Dominion is, or rather was, lacrosse. Even so, there were in Quebec in the 1913-4 season 76 clubs and seven boys' leagues.

Baseball holds football at bay in America outside the big colleges like Yale and Harvard, whose encounters are historic. Still, the association game was making headway before America came into the war, 88 clubs entering for the National Cup last

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year. If the United States troops come in contact with the British soldiers in France it is safe to predict that a tremendous fillip will eventually be given to the association game in America.

IV. CHANGED CONDITIONS AND THE MORAL.

How many thousands of non-athletic young men whose cheerless, sedentary lives were not conducive to even mild forms of activity, to say nothing of participation in the comparatively violent exercise of football, will, during their stay in the army, have learned to take a delight in the free use of their thews and muscles on some field of play in this or some other country where they have been fighting! In them the love of an outdoor life has become almost as strong as it is in the case of those men reared from the cradle upwards to appreciate the virtue of fresh air, cold water, and bracing physical exercise. During their period of training the youths of the ill-ventilated warehouses, the stuffy and sometimes insanitary offices, have filled their lungs with the clean, sweet air of the seaside and the downs. They have known the joy of dreamless sleep after long hours of exercise in the open air. Both at home and abroad, when winter has sharpened the atmosphere, they have revelled in the chase of the ball. Even on the sands of Khartoum, even in the shadows of the Sphinx, aye, in the Garden of Eden, they have played their games. Thousand by thousand have they been enrolled in the vast army of men who are not only out to fight, but to keep themselves fit by indulgence in the active pursuit of sports and pastimes.

They have added themselves in almost overwhelming numbers to the small army of fresh-air men which instinct and a knowledge of the laws of hygiene had brought into being before the war. Where they were weak and full of lassitude they will be strong and exuberant. Instead of seeking cosy but unhealthy corners these men will find their way into the playing fields, the broad highway, the moors, the dales, and the streams of their native land. Or, perchance, they will wander into a wider world, seeking a home outside the outer walls of Empire.

For the reasons set forth I think the recreation of the future will be in the open rather than indoors. All those who are not past the age when active participation in athletic games is pleasurable will want to play rather than look on. This will lead to a veritable boom in sport, and one of the effects will be in the direction of resurrecting all the minor clubs which became defunct as soon as the players and officials marched off to the war. As I have already indicated, the great difficulty may be the finding of suitable playing grounds. In large centres like Manchester, Liverpool, and Birmingham, the lack of vacant land

may be felt acutely unless the municipal authorities give greater facilities. It is, perhaps, a sign of the times that the Corporation of Chesterfield has recently assumed the responsibility of running the chief football club in that town when the war comes to an end. If municipal theatres, why not municipal sports' grounds?

The changed conditions under which our returned warriors will insist upon living demand that such an enterprise should be taken into serious consideration. Equally important is it that an employer of labour should have regard to the altered outlook of the civilian employé who has turned soldier for the time being. What a brigadier-general has learned to appreciate a managing director may deem it worth while giving a thought to. If men are by reasonable indulgence in athletics made fitter for the task of fighting his fellows, then it surely follows that they can in precisely the same way be made fitter for the work they may be called upon to do in civil life.

That is the moral of all I have said. As far as possible I wish to identify cricket with what I have had to say about the winter pastime. For I recognise that we shall not in the future be entirely a nation of athletes, that there will be men who will seek sanctuary, as it were, in the cricket enclosures. These men who have come through the toil and tribulation of war—but, alas! not unscathed—will strive to win back their peace of mind and to fit themselves for the civil life they have resumed, and there is no better sedative than cricket. Moreover, they will desire that their recreation should be in the open rather than within four walls.

Taking all in all, I see the creation not only of a vast army of sturdy men, but of men who have learned to appreciate the value of physical fitness and who have found a lasting joy in life.

The work of the factory and the warehouse must go on in this industrial motherland, but there is no conceivable reason why it should not be to the accompaniment of health-giving pursuits. And what is good for the individual is good for the community, and, therefore, for the State.

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CO-OPERATIVE EMPLOYMENT.

NUMBER OF CO-OPERATIVE EMPLOYEES IN 1916 AND THE TWO PREVIOUS YEARS.

Year.	Total Workers.	Engaged in				Wages.	
		Production.		Distribution.		Pro-ductive.	Dis-tributive.
		Number.	Per cent. of Total.	Number.	Per cent. of Total.		
1914.....	148,264	63,275	42·68	84,989	57·32	£ 3,984,783	£ 5,228,681
1915.....	155,379	66,486	42·79	88,893	57·21	4,269,017	5,659,909
1916.....	158,715	62,401	39·32	96,314	60·68	4,546,874	6,291,201

THE TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

THE TOTAL VALUE OF MERCHANDISE CONSIGNED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS (INCLUDING PROTECTORATES) IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Food, Drink, and Tobacco	£ 280,587,831	£ 290,202,323	£ 296,969,207	£ 380,874,561	£ 419,166,624
Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	275,667,566	281,822,444	236,531,383	286,569,551	336,791,740
Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured	185,466,834	193,602,375	160,490,216	181,450,218	189,194,348
Miscellaneous and Unclassified	2,918,400	3,107,597	2,644,307	2,999,020	3,353,780
Total	744,640,631	768,734,739	696,635,113	851,893,350	948,506,492

THE TOTAL VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS FOR THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Food, Drink, and Tobacco	£ 32,685,808	£ 32,587,942	£ 26,948,542	£ 25,081,669	£ 29,495,168
Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	59,417,493	69,904,992	56,713,082	52,354,040	64,345,098
Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured	385,028,315	411,368,358	338,633,564	292,926,785	393,397,751
Miscellaneous and Unclassified	10,091,863	11,383,997	8,426,169	14,505,954	19,041,690
Total	487,223,439	525,245,289	430,721,357	384,868,448	506,279,707

THE TOTAL VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS (INCLUDING PROTECTORATES) FOR THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Food, Drink, and Tobacco	£ 15,093,809	£ 15,942,565	£ 17,441,898	£ 22,398,696	£ 21,077,446
Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	67,286,032	64,037,767	53,858,124	54,587,886	49,136,639
Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured	29,189,219	29,437,638	24,089,278	22,017,430	27,248,236
Miscellaneous and Unclassified	168,631	137,067	84,866	58,169	103,857
Total	111,737,691	109,575,037	95,474,166	99,062,181	97,566,178

CASH RATES OF WAGES OF AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

AT JANUARY, 1914, AND JANUARY, 1917.*

INFORMATION is obtained annually from the chairmen or clerks of a large number of Rural District Councils showing the rates of cash wages most generally paid to the various classes of agricultural labourers not provided with board or lodging† in the rural district areas. Such rates, while by no means representing the labourers' total earnings, are useful as a means of comparing one year with another, and in the following table a comparison is made between the weekly rates paid in January, 1914, and January, 1917. This period covers seven months prior to the outbreak of war, but as the movement in wages between January and August of 1914 was relatively very small, the rates for January, 1914, can be regarded as substantially the rates prevailing immediately before the war.

The figures in the table are the *means* of the rates given for those rural districts in each county from which information has been received for both January, 1914, and January, 1917, and cover over 80 per cent. of the total number of rural districts in England and Wales. As already stated, these rates do not represent the total earnings, and are the nominal weekly rates of cash wages only. To arrive at the total earnings it would be necessary to add the value of allowances in kind, such as a free house, potato ground, milk, &c., and the extra cash earnings from piece-work, overtime, special harvest payments, and, in the case of men in charge of animals, such items as journey money, bonuses for calves reared, and lamb money. These vary on different farms and in individual cases, and the necessary particulars can

only be ascertained by inquiries on a large scale addressed to individual farmers in every part of the country. Inquiries of this kind were last undertaken by the Department in 1907. A further inquiry was projected for the autumn of 1914, but was interrupted by the war.

According to the statistics published by the Board of Trade in the report as to the earnings and hours of labour in agriculture in 1907 (Cd. 5460), which were based on returns received direct from individual farmers, the average value of the extra earnings in cash and kind generally varied in the different counties from about 2s. to 4s. per week. So far as the Department is aware, the extra earnings had not varied to any considerable extent up to the outbreak of war. As explained below, however, their value has probably increased appreciably at the present time.

If the cash rates in each county for ordinary labourers not provided with food be taken for purposes of comparison, it will be seen that in England the greatest increase in cash rates took place between January, 1914, and January, 1917, in Durham (8s. 1d. per week), and in Wales, in Flint and Merioneth (8s. 6d. per week). The county in England in which the increase was least was Hereford (4s. 2d. per week), and in Wales, Cardigan (3s. 8d. per week). In only seven counties in England and Wales did the increase amount to less than 5s. per week, in 12 counties it was 5s. or under 6s., in 18 counties 6s. or under 7s., in eight counties 7s. or under 8s., and in five counties it was 8s. or over per week; Westmorland and Anglesey are

* *The Labour Gazette*, July, 1917.

† In certain of the Welsh districts a considerable number of the ordinary agricultural labourers are provided with food on weekdays, but not with lodging. Particulars for both classes are shown in the returns and in the table which follows.

excluded from these figures, on account of the information received being insufficient for statistical purposes.

In addition to the increases which the table shows in the weekly rates of cash wages, allowances must be made for the extra earnings having also increased. Although it is impossible with the information available to indicate the amount of such increase, it might be pointed out that in the first place the higher prices now obtaining must have appreciably increased the value of most of the allowances in kind. These have also in some cases been increased in quantity. Evidence is also forthcoming as to piece-work rates and harvest wages having been increased. A correspondent in Essex mentions that piece-work rates were 25 to 50 per cent. higher in 1916 than before the war. In Norfolk, where it is the custom to pay the labourers a lump sum for the harvest, this usually amounted to £7 or £7. 10s. before the war; in 1916 the minimum harvest payment had been raised to £9. 5s. Payments for overtime, moreover, have increased considerably during the war period, mainly owing to the shortage of labour, and, to some extent, to the introduction of the Daylight Saving Act.

Since January, 1917, the date to which the latest available returns relate, it is known that the wages of the workers on the land have increased, owing partly to the scarcity of labour and partly to the rise in the cost of living.

MINIMUM WAGES BOARD.

The Corn Production Act, 1917, passed on August 21st, provides for the establishment by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, after consultation with the Minister of Labour, of an Agricultural Wages Board for England and Wales. The main object for which the Wages Board is established is the fixing of minimum rates of wages for "workmen" employed in agriculture, that is to say, rates of wages which, in the opinion of the Wages Board, are the lowest which ought to be paid to "workmen" in the district for which the rates are fixed. The term "workmen" includes

boys, women, and girls, and employment in agriculture includes work not only on farms, but also on osier land, woodland, orchards, market gardens, and nursery grounds.

The minimum rates when fixed will be legally payable as explained below.

Constitution of the Wages Board.—The Wages Board will consist of three classes of persons: (a) "appointed members," that is to say, persons directly appointed by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries who are not necessarily engaged in agriculture but are expected to form an impartial judgment as between employers' and workers' interests; (b) members representing employers; and (c) members representing workers.

The members representing employers and the members representing workers must be equal in number. The appointed members must not be greater in number than one-quarter of the total number of members of the Wages Board.

Minimum Rates of Wages.—It will be the duty of the Wages Board to fix *minimum rates of wages for time-work* for all classes of workers, and they may, if they think it necessary or expedient, also fix *minimum rates of wages for piece-work*. These rates, whether for time-work or for piece-work, may be fixed so as to apply universally to workers employed in agriculture, or they may be different for different districts, or for different classes of workers, or for different kinds and conditions of employment. In the case of *able-bodied men*, the minimum rates fixed for *time-work* must be such as will secure wages which, in the opinion of the Wages Board, are equivalent to payment for an ordinary day's work at a rate of *at least 25s. a week*. This provision does not apply in the case of boys, women, and girls. In computing the wages, the value of such customary allowances as are not prohibited by law may be included in so far as the Wages Board may authorise and on a basis of value to be fixed by the Wages Board. Deductions from cash wages in respect of an allowance of intoxicating drink are illegal under the Truck Acts.

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COMPARISON OF MEAN OF WEEKLY RATES OF CASH WAGES PAID IN JANUARY, 1914, AND JANUARY, 1917.

N.B.—The rates stated are exclusive of extra earnings and allowances in kind. Some of the variations in cash rates are due to the variations in the value of these extra earnings and allowances in different counties and districts.

ENGLAND.

County.	Ordinary Labourers (not provided with food).		Horsemen (not provided with food).		Cattlemen (not provided with food).		Shepherds (not provided with food).	
	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.
NORTHERN COUNTIES—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Northumberland	21 0	27 5	20 4	28 5	20 1	27 9	20 11	27 9
Durham	20 9	28 10	20 10	29 9	20 5	28 11	20 11	29 2
Cumberland	18 11	25 1	20 7	27 2	20 6	26 11	20 4	25 8
Westmorland	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
YORKSHIRE, LANCASHIRE, AND CHESHIRE—								
Yorkshire (East Riding)	18 2	25 4	19 3	26 11	19 2	26 9	19 7	27 3
" (North ")	18 3	24 10	19 6	27 1	19 5	26 8	19 5	27 2
" (West ")	18 10	25 8	20 10	28 0	19 9	26 11	20 4	28 0
" (Whole County)	18 6	25 4	20 2	27 6	19 6	26 10	19 11	27 7
Lancashire	20 5	27 7	22 9	29 10	21 9	28 10	21 2	31 10
Cheshire	18 9	25 4	20 3	27 7	19 11	26 10	19 8	26 6
NORTH AND WEST MIDLAND COUNTIES—								
Leicestershire	17 2	25 2	19 4	26 5	19 0	26 0	19 4	26 7
Rutland	15 6	22 6	17 0	24 0	16 0	22 6	16 6	22 6
Lincolnshire	16 6	24 2	15 10	22 11	15 10	22 6	16 2	23 4
Nottinghamshire	18 3	24 7	19 11	27 3	19 8	26 11	20 1	27 6
Derbyshire	20 1	27 3	21 8	28 7	20 11	27 11	20 11	27 3
Gloucestershire	15 1	20 7	16 9	22 7	16 5	22 6	16 6	22 5
Monmouthshire	16 5	22 6	17 5	24 4	17 5	24 4	17 2	23 0
Herefordshire	15 0	19 2	16 3	20 10	15 11	20 3	16 5	20 9
Shropshire	15 1	21 9	16 4	23 6	16 3	23 2	16 8	23 5
Staffordshire	17 8	23 10	19 2	25 10	19 0	25 5	18 11	25 1
Worcestershire	15 5	21 6	16 11	22 8	16 4	22 7	17 0	22 6
Warwickshire	15 11	21 11	17 8	24 1	17 6	23 8	17 3	23 5
SOUTH MIDLAND AND EASTERN COUNTIES—								
Middlesex	20 4	27 4	21 4	29 8	21 8	29 8	21 4	29 4
Hertfordshire	15 3	20 5	17 6	23 4	17 5	23 2	18 1	23 1
Buckinghamshire	14 8	21 3	16 7	24 0	16 7	24 4	16 6	24 5
Oxfordshire	13 0	19 4	14 11	22 3	14 10	22 1	14 11	21 11
Northamptonshire	15 5	21 1	17 5	24 0	16 8	23 2	16 11	23 0
Huntingdonshire	14 3	21 9	17 0	23 9	16 5	23 6	17 4	23 4
Bedfordshire	15 0	21 3	17 7	24 5	17 5	24 4	17 7	23 7
Cambridgeshire	14 8	22 1	15 10	22 9	15 10	22 8	16 10	23 7
Essex	14 8	22 4	16 8	23 11	16 11	23 8	17 0	24 0
Suffolk	13 7	20 0	15 7	22 1	15 5	22 0	16 0	22 2
Norfolk	14 0	22 0	15 11	24 0	16 0	24 6	16 2	23 9
STH.-EASTERN COUNTIES—								
Surrey	17 0	22 3	17 11	22 9	18 3	23 8	18 3	23 1
Kent	17 7	23 0	19 3	25 5	19 0	25 0	19 10	25 4
Sussex	15 1	21 10	17 5	23 7	17 5	23 3	17 11	23 3
Hampshire	14 5	20 2	15 9	22 0	16 2	22 2	16 3	22 4
Berkshire	14 6	19 6	15 5	21 10	16 1	22 3	15 7	22 3
STH.-WESTERN COUNTIES—								
Wiltshire	14 3	20 6	15 9	22 8	16 0	22 11	16 1	22 9
Dorsetshire	12 10	17 8	13 10	19 4	14 2	19 11	14 4	20 2
Devonshire	13 11	18 2	14 10	19 2	15 2	19 5	15 2	19 10
Cornwall	16 7	21 1	17 3	21 2	17 3	21 4	17 6	21 8
Somersetshire	15 4	20 5	16 4	21 6	16 4	21 5	16 1	22 0

* Data insufficient for statistical purposes.

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WALES

County.	Ordinary Labourers (not provided with food).		Ordinary Labourers provided with food.		Horsemen and Cattlemen (not provided with food).		Shepherds (not provided with food).	
	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.	Jan., 1914.	Jan., 1917.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Flintshire	17 9	26 3	*	*	19 10	27 2	*	*
Denbighshire	18 6	25 4	12 8	15 7	18 1	25 1	*	*
Carmarvonshire	20 0	24 8	12 0	14 6	19 2	24 10	*	*
Anglesey	*	*	11 0	15 6	17 9	24 3	*	*
Merionethshire	17 9	26 3	10 6	18 3	*	*	*	*
Montgomeryshire	16 8	22 9	10 8	15 2	*	*	*	*
Cardiganshire	16 4	20 0	12 11	15 0	*	*	*	*
Radnorshire	15 0	20 1	10 3	14 6	14 6	20 6	15 4	19 8
Brecknockshire	17 11	23 3	13 2	17 4	17 10	22 4	20 2	24 4
Carmarthenshire	17 10	23 6	11 8	17 4	*	*	*	*
Pembrokeshire	16 8	21 0	11 0	15 9	*	*	*	*
Glamorganshire	20 2	27 10	14 8	17 10	20 9	28 9	19 8	26 4

* Data insufficient for statistical purposes.



BUILDING SOCIETIES.

THE membership of building societies, the advances made upon mortgage securities, and the total amount outstanding on mortgages for the fifteen years 1901-15 are shown in the following figures:—

Year.	Membership.	Amount Advanced on Mortgage Securities.	Balance due on Mortgage Securities.
		£	£
1901	591,283	9,119,675	47,866,207
1902	595,451	9,059,822	49,244,581
1903	601,204	9,959,555	51,396,980
1904	609,785	9,589,864	53,196,112
1905	612,424	9,193,221	54,368,546
1906	616,729	9,318,979	55,639,068
1907	623,047	9,793,706	57,334,879
1908	622,614	9,041,613	58,379,215
1909	629,549	9,134,461	59,318,681
1910	629,621	9,390,700	60,583,426
1911	605,209	9,004,093	60,603,654
1912	608,737	8,438,256	60,891,410
1913	617,403	9,244,570	61,639,132
1914	628,885	8,874,618	61,980,326
1915	633,877	6,623,184	60,770,039
Average	615,055	9,052,421	56,880,818

It will be seen from the above table that there was a very considerable reduction in advances during 1915, amounting to two and a quarter millions sterling, or over 25 per cent. of the 1914 figure, and 28.4 per cent. of the 1913 figure. Comparing the 1915 and 1913 figures for the various countries, it is found that in England the 1915 advances were 28.5 per cent. below those for 1913, the percentages for Wales, Scotland, and Ireland being respectively 30.0, 21.4, and 18.8.

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The aggregate advances in 1915 were the lowest since 1901, the earliest year for which the figures for advances are available.

The following is a summary representing the aggregate balance sheets of building societies in the United Kingdom for each of the years 1913, 1914, and 1915:—

Country.	Year.	Number of Returns.	Liabilities.			Assets.	
			Holders of Shares.	Depositors and other Creditors.	Net Balance of Profit and Reserve.	Balance due upon Mortgage Securities.	Other Assets.
			£	£	£	£	£
England	1913	1,360	43,179,028	15,090,563	3,586,882	57,519,701	4,336,772
	1914	1,314	44,071,324	15,011,893	3,655,103	57,855,569	4,882,751
	1915	1,274	44,088,402	14,507,384	3,813,765	56,810,973	5,598,578
Wales	1913	82	985,794	482,775	68,909	1,425,110	112,368
	1914	77	983,790	472,222	59,969	1,389,908	126,073
	1915	74	923,140	456,171	61,455	1,323,145	117,621
Scotland	1913	110	1,396,133	400,935	124,879	1,788,653	133,294
	1914	110	1,434,240	383,507	119,082	1,804,465	132,364
	1915	106	1,405,897	364,195	119,939	1,755,362	134,669
Ireland	1913	59	671,687	218,209	102,039	905,668	86,267
	1914	60	675,626	226,027	106,616	930,384	77,885
	1915	61	650,207	203,845	105,950	880,559	79,443
United Kingdom	1913	1,611	46,232,642	16,192,482	3,882,709	61,639,132	4,668,701
	1914	1,561	47,164,980	16,093,649	3,940,770	61,980,326	5,219,073
	1915	1,515	47,067,646	15,531,595	4,101,109	60,770,039	5,930,311



FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

HERE is a summary of particulars which have been abstracted from the annual returns of branchless (or, as they have been frequently termed, "ordinary") friendly societies for 1915, in comparison with similar particulars for the two previous years:—

	England.	Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.		
	1915.				1915.	1914.	1913.
No. of Returns ...	3,907	289	190	145	4,531	4,782	5,001
No. of Members—							
Admitted	226,984	8,607	6,033	5,584	247,208	247,784	303,461
Ceased by Death	43,764	947	1,840	864	47,415	39,550	36,739
Ceased by other Causes	228,020	12,534	4,759	5,190	250,503	311,035	365,161
At end of Year..	3,624,383	58,480	99,509	47,105	3,829,477	3,888,964	4,012,847
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Sickness Pay ...	1,386,930	40,395	34,997	4,627	1,466,949	1,557,784	1,598,188
Sums at Death ...	514,540	7,715	18,108	5,857	546,220	452,544	421,773
Other Benefits ...	1,241,623	22,220	23,214	33,032	1,320,089	1,369,808	1,393,514
Total Funds	23,391,953	285,978	962,578	182,470	24,822,979	23,870,428	23,269,908

The foregoing table shows that the membership of branchless societies decreased during the year by 59,500, or 1.5 per cent., while funds increased by £953,000, or 4 per cent. Sums at death increased by £94,000; sickness pay and other benefits decreased by £91,000 and £50,000 respectively.

TOTAL FUNDS.—Total funds of all orders, districts, and branches amounted to £30,684,201 in 1913, £31,024,099 in 1914, and £32,181,660 at the end of 1915, the latest official figures.



DEATH DUTIES.

THE Death Duties, or Inheritance Duties, are now one of the leading sources of our public revenue, and yielded in the year ended March, 1916, £31,035,000, and in 1917, £31,232,000. For some reasons not quite apparent the estimates for 1918 look for £29,000,000 only from this source.

HISTORY.—Like so much in our government, the death duties are involved in old ecclesiastical use and privilege. When a person dies the probate of a will is the executor's authority to administer his property. In the old diocesan registries the executor deposited the will, and a copy, under seal was delivered to him, which became the certificate that the will had been "proved." In the case of an intestacy the "ordinary" (or bishop) granted the representative of the deceased "letters of administration" empowering him to deal with the property.

Our present death duties developed from our former stamp duties, and even now are paid by means of stamps. The idea came from Holland, through Adam Smith, and was applied first by Lord North, in addition to stamp duty, in probates on amounts from £20 and upwards. Pitt, in 1795, extended the principle; but there was a sort of death duty in Ireland from 1774, and from 1808 the inventory duty was charged in Scotland, much like the probate duty in England. Since then they have been varied from time to time.

HOW DEATH DUTIES ARE IMPOSED NOW.—The value of the property on which estate duty has to be paid is the value on the open market; but in the case of agricultural property, where there is no expectation of increased income, it shall not be more than twenty-five times the annual value under the Income Tax Acts, after making deductions under the Succession Act (1853), and 5 per cent. for expenses of management. Allowance from the total also shall be made for funeral expenses, and for debts and incumbrances. In charging succession duty the value is taken after deducting the estate duty payable. Estates not exceeding £100 are exempt. (See over).

LEGACY AND SUCCESSION DUTY, in case of deaths after April 29th, 1909, are paid at the same rates, viz.: Where the legatee is a member of deceased's own family, 1 per cent.; a brother or sister, or their descendants, 5 per cent.; and other relations or strangers, 10 per cent., the one being paid on personal, the other on the real property inherited.

Two or three special cases are worth notice here. Estate duty becoming payable on any property consisting of land or business within five years after a former charge, is reduced, if in one year, by 50; if in two years, by 40; if in three years, by 30; if in four years, by 20; and if in five years from the former charge, by 10 per cent.

Officers and men killed in war.—Their estates up to £5,000 are exempted from all death duties, and if the estate

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RATES OF ESTATE DUTY.

	DEATH OCCURRED.			
	Before April 19, 1907.	Before April 30, 1909.	Before Aug. 16, 1914.	After Aug. 15, 1914.
Where Principal Value of Estate Exceeds—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
£100 but not £500.....	1	1	1	1
£500 „ £1,000.....	2	2	2	2
£1,000 „ £5,000.....	3	3	3	3
£5,000 „ £10,000.....	3	3	4	4
£10,000 „ £20,000.....	4	4	5	5
£20,000 „ £25,000.....	4	4	6	6
£25,000 „ £40,000.....	4½	4½	6	6
£40,000 „ £50,000.....	4½	4½	7	7
£50,000 „ £60,000.....	5	5	7	7
£60,000 „ £70,000.....	5	5	7	8
£70,000 „ £75,000.....	5	5	8	8
£75,000 „ £80,000.....	5½	5½	8	8
£80,000 „ £100,000.....	5½	5½	8	9
£100,000 „ £150,000.....	6	6	9	10
£150,000 „ £200,000.....	6½	7	10	11
£200,000 „ £250,000.....	6½	7	11	12
£250,000 „ £300,000.....	7	8	11	13
£300,000 „ £350,000.....	7	8	11	14
£350,000 „ £400,000.....	7	8	11	15
£400,000 „ £500,000.....	7	8	12	16
£500,000 „ £600,000.....	7½	9	12	17
£600,000 „ £750,000.....	7½	9	13	18
£750,000 „ £800,000.....	7½	10	13	18
£800,000 „ £1,000,000.....	7½	10	14	19
		On One Million Pounds.	On the remainder.	
£1,000,000 „ £1,500,000.....	8	10	11	20
£1,500,000 „ £2,000,000.....	8	10	12	20
£2,000,000 „ £2,500,000.....	8	10	13	20
£2,500,000 „ £3,000,000.....	8	10	14	20
£3,000,000 and upwards	8	10	15	20
On Settled Property an Additional Duty.....	1	1	2	Nil.

Small estates up to £300 pay 30s., and not exceeding £500, 50s.

Real and personal property not exceeding £1,000, paying estate duty, is exempt from legacy and settlement duty.

exceeds £5,000, only on the excess, payable according to the expectation of life of the deceased on the value of that excess at 3 per cent. Officers and men of the merchant service and fishing fleets share in this provision.

Gifts, so as to be exempt from death duties, must be made a clear

three years before the death of the donor.

The above death duties are now applicable to the whole of the United Kingdom; and corporation duty is still payable at 5 per cent. of the annual value of corporations, and yielded £62,053 in 1915-16.

STATISTICS.—An exceedingly valuable series of statistics, bearing on the distribution of wealth especially, is got from the administration of the death duties, but only a few figures indicating that value can be given here. The last year of good statistics available is 1914-15. In that year £28,542,571 were taken in death duties, consisting of £22,367,871 from estate, £5,018,609 from legacy, and £1,075,144 from succession duties. Of that £22,367,871 from estate duty, £18,049,009 came from personal, and £4,318,862 from real property. In that, 75,739 estates paid death duty, and these estates ranged in value from those less than

£300 to one estate exceeding £3,000,000 in value. But the most interesting fact of the analysis of the estates is that their number seems to be in inverse proportion, roughly, to their amount, *e.g.*: 28·8 were up to £300; 14·5 to £500; 8·3 to £500 net; 16·2 to £1,000; and 21·5 per cent. to £5,000; so that 89·3 per cent. of the number were not exceeding the £5,000 in value. Again, these estates up to £5,000 did not aggregate to more than 21·6 per cent. of the capital value paying death duties. In other words, the 11 per cent. of estates above £5,000 outvalued the 89 per cent. in capital value nearly five times.



A Comparison of the English and American life tables shows that the chances of surviving at most ages are, on the average, greater in this country than in the United States. Amongst the factors contributing to the difference the greater strenuous industrial life in America, combined with the stream of immigration and the existence of a coloured population, together with a less advantageous stage of social legislation, must be taken into account.

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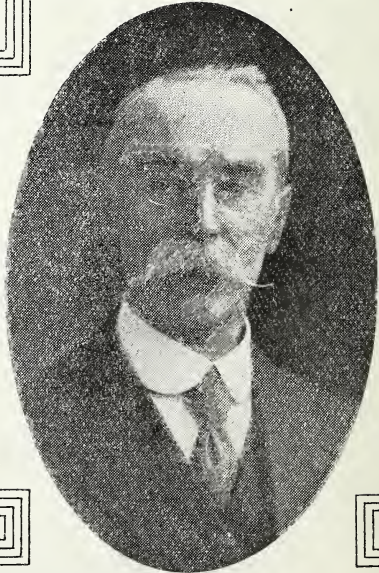
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BRITISH CAPITAL IN WAR-TIME.

BY W. H. BROWN.

THOSE who, in the prosperous days of peace, presaged that a six months' European War would find the nations so financially weakened that they would give up the contest have long ceased to explain away their fallacies. Whatever the future may bring, the present is abnormally rich in commercial results, and although the purchasing value of the sovereign has shrunk below ten shillings—as the Board of Trade spokesman admitted in the House of Commons on December 13th—the remuneration of capital invested in joint-stock concerns has risen so high since the declaration of war in August, 1914, that the moneyed classes would have a wider margin between spendings and receipts but for the graduation of income tax, which is being used to restrict some of the inequalities of the impost. As a matter of commonweal, it should be an axiom that those who are engaged in providing materials, munitions, machinery, &c., for the national necessities should not make inordinate profits from their undertakings. Patriotic fervour should, in theory, work that way. In fact, however, it has had to be reminded, by the excess profits duty, that capital as well as humanity owes a duty to the State.

Before the outbreak of war British capital had been, for many years, allured to foreign countries awaiting development, and to those of our own dominions ready for cultivation. Russia, Brazil, and the Argentine had been helped in the development of railways and the financing of industrial undertakings, and Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa had all been financially assisted by investors at home. Risks were run, but the prospects of high rates of interest, and the issue of loans below par for repayment after a term of years, attracted investors—or, at least, that large section that is touched by the prospectus issued by a London promoter or underwriter. For here a necessary distinction has to be drawn, and it should be remembered that, whilst the methods of joint-stock promoters and operators are tabulated and totalled, millions of pounds are annually invested in home concerns—such as corporation stocks and local industries, of which latter the cotton mills of Lancashire, largely capitalised by residents of the districts in which they are situated, are the best examples.

It was generally assumed that our national annual saving before the war was 400 millions sterling—probably half of that sum was used in developing municipal and local industries, such as those just referred to; the other moiety was invested in joint-stock concerns. Most of that portion went abroad. Of course all was not lost, for a large part was credited to our makers of machinery, plant, &c.;

but the actual disposal of the funds thus obtained was controlled elsewhere than in this country. The financial operations of the City of London serve the world, and the great money-houses have, of late years, devoted only a small part of their resources and energy to the industries of Great Britain. A leading authority,* at a representative meeting on Industrial Reconstruction after the War, recently declared that, in 1912, out of a total of approximately £191,000,000 of capital to which the British public were invited to subscribe, only £17,500,000, or less than £1 in £11, represented the issues of companies situated in these islands. In 1913 the proportion was even more extraordinary, British issues being only £15,500,000 out of a total of about £1 in £15. Based on such comparisons Mr. Robert Grant inclined to a pessimistic view that, in view of the amount of money credited to this country for goods and materials supplied, was too depressed; but the figures indicate a tendency that, continuously pursued, would eventually make Great Britain a huge moneylender, reaping interest where she had not sown, and gathering an unearned increment from the toils and risks of others.

During the period of the war appeals for fresh capital have had to pass the criticism of the Treasury, which has declined to sanction many of the issues contemplated by financiers. Probably the new capital raised for industrial purposes since August, 1914, has been less than 1 per cent. of the loans and money raised for various purposes. This has been for oil, iron, coal, steel, motor construction, and similar purposes, and is but a small proportion of the £1,318,500,000 raised by public appeals in 1917. Of that total no less than £1,297,800,000 was in the form of loans to the Government, the War Loan at the beginning of the year realising 999 $\frac{1}{4}$ millions. Although there has been striking increases in the value of many Stock Exchange securities—some of which are given in the accompanying table—there has been, on the whole, a heavy depreciation in the aggregate. In the case of 387 representative stocks, tabulated by the *Bankers' Magazine*, this amounted to no less than £771,000,000 between July, 1914, and the end of December, 1917. This tendency has been greatly accelerated by the shrinkage in American railroad shares and the fall in various foreign Government stocks, particularly those of Russia. On the other hand, the shares of commercial companies have shown an upward movement, the percentage increase in the different departments during the twelve months of 1917 being as follows:—

Breweries	41.1
Insurance.....	14.5
Canals and Docks	14.1
Shipping	8.8
Industrial	5.7
Banks (semi-foreign)	10.9

* *Economist*, March 24th, 1917.

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Appreciated values of industrial shares since August, 1914, may be illustrated by the following examples from various classes of securities in which dealings have been active:—

Company.	Quotation end of July, 1914.	Quotation end of December, 1917.
METALS AND ENGINEERING—		
Babcock & Wilcox	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{3}{16}$ — $\frac{5}{16}$
Brown (John) & Co.	25/6	38/6
Cammell Laird	4	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7
Cargo Fleet.....	7/6	22/6
Dick, Kerr & Co.	10/—	1 $\frac{3}{16}$ — $\frac{5}{16}$
Dorman Long	17/6	46/—47/—
Pease & Partners (£10).....	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$ —17
Swan & Hunter.....	19/6	50/—
SHIPPING—		
Cunard	29/6	3 $\frac{15}{16}$ —4 $\frac{3}{16}$
Furness Withy	26/6	57/—
P. & O. Deferred	290	328
Royal Mail, Ordinary	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	120
TEXTILES—		
Bleachers, Ordinary	18/—	20/3
Bradford Dyers	22/6	32/3
Calico Printers	8/9	15/6
Courtaulds	2 $\frac{5}{16}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
English Sewing Cotton	36/9	55/6
INDUSTRIALS—		
British & Argentine Meat	7/6	21/9
Bryant & May	1 $\frac{5}{32}$	2
Dunlop Rubber	2 $\frac{3}{16}$	4 $\frac{9}{16}$
Lipton's	17/6	23/6
Maypole Dairy Deferred (2s.).....	19/9	20/3
Nelson Bros.	18/9	26/3
Peeke Bros. & Winch 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Pref. (£5)...	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	4

Except where otherwise stated the shares are of the nominal value of £1.

During the period of the war the earnings of the banks have increased; their turnovers have been large, and, although heavier expenses and generous allowances to members of the staffs who joined H.M. Forces in the early days have had to be met, the great joint-stock banks have, with one solitary exception, enjoyed enhanced profits. Dividend distributions in the first half of 1917 remained at the normal rates, ranging from 10 to 19 per cent., as against the range of from 10 to 21 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in 1914. This is a business to which the people themselves will have to pay individual as well as collective heed. The bank of the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited, which is the one democratic banking institution in the country, has improved its position as regards its "movements of funds" of late years, and for 1917 these totalled well over £300,000,000. The clients are chiefly confined to the 1,714 co-operative societies, trade unions, friendly societies, clubs, and other mutual organisations having current

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accounts with the society. Its recognition by the British trade union and kindred movements is already assured. In this connection figures showing the liabilities, deposits, current accounts, &c., and the proportion of the cash to the liabilities of the 64 leading banks in England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the Isle of Man, as given in the *Bankers' Magazine* for May, 1917, are useful.

	Column I. Deposits, Current Accounts, and Note Circulation (where it exists).	Column II. Cash in hand at Call, and at Short Notice.	Column III. Proportion of Column II. to Column I.
	£	£	Per cent.
Sixty-four Leading Banks ...	1,714,879,251	510,800,892	30
C.W.S. Bank	13,017,932	2,944,951	23

The business of the 64 joint-stock banks is transacted at 8,960 offices; that of the C.W.S. bank at five co-operative centres. The deposits, current accounts, &c., of the latter are in the proportion of £1 to £132 of the former. Democrats will find encouragement to concentrate their banking business in their own co-operative institution. It has always proved its capacity to meet any contingency.

In view of the many stern calls for economy the position of the great drapery firms has been really remarkable. Their turnover has produced records in volume as well as in value, and the wholesale drapery firms seemed to do as well financially in 1917 as in 1916. During last February the reports of 19 London and Manchester houses were issued, showing, in the aggregate, a net profit of 35 per cent. for 1916; two-thirds of them paid a higher dividend on the ordinary shares than in 1915. In this connection we have an incidental glimpse of the concentration of business among the great firms. According to the managing director of Messrs. John Howell and Co., that company has opened 2,500 new accounts since the beginning of the war, and doubtless other firms of similar size and standing have added to their clients. Dividend declarations have been as follows:—

Company.	Dividend on Ordinary Shares.		Company.	Dividend on Ordinary Shares.	
	1916-17.	1915-16.		1916-17.	1915-16.
	Per cent.	Per cent.		Per cent.	Per cent.
Rylands & Sons	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	10	Lunt (Richard) & Co. . .	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	15
Fore Street Warehouse.	10	8	Bradbury, Greatorex . .	10	10
Wilkinson & Riddell ..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	Hyam (M.), Wholesale		<i>Nil.</i>
Rotherham & Co.	15	12	Clothiers	5	
Howell & Co.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	Shannon (John) & Son.	8	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bousfield & Co.	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	Hayes, Candy, & Co....	10	8
Devas, Routledge, & Co.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	Pawsons & Leafs	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Spencer, Turner, and			Foster, Porter, & Co. . .	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bolders	8	8	Scott, Son, & Co.	10	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Edwards & Co.	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	Crocker, Sons, & Co....	7	6
Wyse, Sons, & Co.	10	10			

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Such a roseate complexion is not confined to the wholesale drapery trade; but even more glaring prosperity has fallen to the lot of many of the retail houses. One firm, Messrs. Wm. Mc.Laren, Sons, and Co., of Glasgow, was able to increase its profits for 1916-17 by 70 per cent. above those for the preceding twelve months.

Company.	Dividend on Ordinary Shares.		Company.	Dividend on Ordinary Shares.	
	1916-17.	1915-16.		1916-17.	1915-16.
	Per cent.	Per cent.		Per cent.	Per cent.
Pim Bros.....	8	7½	Todd, Burns, & Co. ...	7	7
Cash & Co.	7	7	Anderson's (John)		
Lyons (T.) & Co.	11	9½	Royal Polytechnic ..	7½	7½
Allan (J. & R.)	5	5	Crowe, Wilson, & Co. ..	8½	8½
Switzer & Co.....	8½	8	Cannock & Co.....	9	9
Arnott & Co.	12½	11½	Pettigrew & Stephens .	10	10
Mc.Laren (Wm.), Sons, & Co. (Glasgow).....	10	8½	Dwyer & Co.	12½	10½

Not only has there been such a run of profit among the retail and wholesale textile firms, but the financial success has extended to the manufacturing industry. Judging from the trading results of the companies in the Oldham area, 1917 has proved a good year for the cotton trade. Here are some figures tabulated from the report of Mr. John Kidger on the cotton-spinning year of Oldham, with its average dividend of 7½ per cent. during 1917. The companies issuing balance sheets paid an average dividend of 12¾ per cent., while those not publishing such records paid an average of 5.9 per cent. Of 90 companies whose accounts for 1917 were made known by the middle of December, 87 made profits and only three sustained losses, the latter aggregating £7,293. It is of interest to those associated with democratic business trading to know that the paid-up share capital of these concerns is £3,601,735, and the loans and mortgages total £2,250,000. There was a net profit of £516,520, which works out to 14½ per cent. on the share capital. The dividends declared, however, were at the rate of 7½ per cent., against an average of 6 per cent. for 1916.

Contrasted with these moderate returns in a year of constant threatening is the annual report of J. and P. Coats, issued at the end of November. This firm made a profit of £3,480,600, and the ordinary dividend has been maintained at 30 per cent. In 1916 there was some grumbling by shareholders at such a modest distribution, but the *Financial Times* pleaded in extenuation, on November 30th, 1917, that "We continue to think 30 per cent. is, in the circumstances, a very fair return." So do the people who happen not to have any of the shares!

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Prosperity has been marked in the reports of clothing companies and boot and shoe firms. Here are three typical returns showing the profits after all charges have been met:—

Company.	Profit.		Dividend on Ordinary Shares.		Carried forward.	
	1916.	1915.	1916.	1915.	1916.	1915.
	£	£	Per cent.	Per cent.	£	£
Sears (J.) & Co.	65,300	57,700	17½	17½	17,700	10,200
Loveys (John) & Co.	8,400	8,800	10	7	3,700	4,900
Stead & Simpson.....	60,800	53,500	10	10	35,000	32,300

In July last the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Mr. Bonar Law) acknowledged in the House of Commons that he had £8,100 invested in fifteen small shipping companies which, in the years 1915 and 1916, gave him a profit of £9,521—£1,421 above his original holding. Had he put his money in co-operative societies, the £8,100 would have produced £405 in interest; but no one is allowed to put more than £200 share capital in an industrial and provident society, or to obtain more than 5 per cent. And yet Mr. Bonar Law, who made in two years between £8,000 and £9,000 above that percentage, has mulcted co-operative societies in excess (?) profits! Shipping companies have done well financially, and the Indo-China Steam Navigation Company, by transferring its headquarters to Hong Kong, has escaped British war taxes and raised the dividend on its ordinary shares from 16 to 50 per cent. The Anglo-Java Rubber Company paid 35 per cent. interest in 1916, as compared with 20 per cent. in 1915; and the Glenshiel Rubber Estates Company Limited last year announced a return of 37½ per cent. in place of the previous 25 per cent. But the following results of the working of typical iron, coal, and steel companies, multiple shops, and those who have dealings with the food requirements of the people, are significant, especially when read alongside the report of a recent meeting of Messrs. Lipton Limited, when the deputy chairman announced a trading profit of £441,184, which he declared to be "the highest recorded in the history of the company, despite the fact that they had had to overcome unprecedented difficulties in trading owing to war conditions. A profit of £258,530 remained to be carried to the balance sheet; in other words, they had more than doubled their last year's profit at a cost of an increase of less than one-twelfth on last year's expenses." And on December 29th, 1917, the shares of that concern were quoted at 23s. to 23s. 6d. ex dividend, as compared with the official price of 17s. 6d. the week before the outbreak of war.

The People's Year Book.

	Profit for Distribution including Balance from last Account.	Dividend on Ordinary Shares, 1917.	Carried Forward.	Dividend for Corre- sponding Period of 1916.
	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.
Consett Iron.....	521,661	40	61,661	...
Lochgelly Iron and Coal	136,447	30	46,447	36
Fernhill Collieries.....	71,961	*20	44,961	*20
Sheepbridge Coal and Iron.....	243,238	*15	42,654	15
Birmingham Small Arms	571,519	*20	170,306	*20
Dick, Kerr & Co.....	105,374	10	36,074	6
British United Shoe Machinery...	497,424	13	421,967	...
Singer & Co.....	60,761	*25	23,252	*20
Rylands & Sons	337,400	11½	166,150	12
Calico Printers Association	615,772	5	64,430	2½
J. & P. Coats	5,623,312	30	1,523,312	30
International Tea	125,563	10	19,563	7
Teetgen & Co.....	19,995	4	10,875	...
United Kingdom Tea	30,874	...	24,374	...
Boots (Eastern)	46,660	12½	19,277	10
S. & W. Berisford (Wholesale Grocers)	97,678	25	51,928	20
Liebig's Extract of Meat	449,647	25	247,647	25
Anglo-British Columbia Packing.	102,500	30	33,500	...
Union Cold Storage	226,873	10	45,014	10
Henry Tate & Sons.....	199,894	25	38,394	25

* Dividend free of Income Tax.

Fusions of financial interests have been numerous during the past few months, rumours freely floating about prior to conversion having the usual effect of securing the appreciation of the shares. Not only have the profits increased, but substantial appropriations have been made in depreciating the value of stocks, buildings, and plant; while the extraordinary increasing advertising which has been a feature of the business of certain classes of companies has been a notable feature of the year. Some comparatively new concerns have taken the precaution to reduce promotion expenses—an important item which can be particularised by the experience of Harrods (Buenos Ayres). The report issued in November indicated a profit of £83,000 for the year, but the amount was used to commence the liquidation of the promotion expenses. These were £234,000, equal to 30 per cent. of the assets and investments of the company. This is in strange contrast with the beginnings of co-operative societies, which are generally floated on great waves of enthusiasm that ebb and flow until they are landed into prosperity by loyalty and sacrifice.

While joint-stockism has, in the main, brought excellent financial results to the shareholders, readers, in estimating the actual value of the profits distributed, have to remember that not all were original

holders, and that speculation and other causes have caused some wonderful fluctuations, operating generally to the advantage of those "in the know." The merit of co-operative finance is the fixed value of its shares, and the easy methods by which withdrawals or transfers can be effected. On the other hand, the purchaser of joint-stock shares has to risk much; that is why he expects so great a return on his capital outlay. The capital of great firms is a known and stable quantity, a fact that enables directors to go into new enterprises and fresh lands with full confidence. But the capital of co-operative societies is always subject to prompt withdrawal; that, of course, has been the reason for the ready way with which the working classes have subscribed the shares and allowed dividends to accumulate. Liquid capital of this kind is necessary; but one of the problems that are presenting themselves for solution is this of obtaining, in all the societies, a larger proportion of non-withdrawable capital. Societies should encourage members to take up transferable shares in larger numbers than hitherto, and use every possible means to secure an adequate proportion of fixed capital. This is one of the securities of joint-stock finance. Something in that direction may ensure greater possibilities for the realisation of the intentions of modern co-operators to go beyond the trading counter and the workshop to the sources of the supply of raw material, and so be independent of the great financial trusts and operators who now take toll of the consumer all the way from the place where food is grown to the shop in which it is distributed to the people.



PERIOD OF PRESENT PARLIAMENT.

THE present Parliament began in January, 1911, under the Septennial Act, for seven years. The period was reduced to five years by the Parliament Act, 1911, and by an Act of January, 1916, was extended to five years, eight months. A further Act was passed in August of 1916, making the period six years and three months, and then six years and ten months by an Act of April, 1917. Last November a measure was adopted fixing the maximum period at seven years, six months; by this Parliament and local Elections (No. 2) Act, the present Parliament is permitted to remain till July, 1918, unless shortened by other means.



A United States Commission on Industrial Relations recently reported that one-third of the millions of workers in that country were poverty-stricken; 37 per cent. of workmen's wives forced to do hard work to keep the wolf from the door; babies of the poor die three times as fast as those of the rich; nearly 20 per cent. of the school children were underfed.

THE INDEPENDENT PAPER

FOR CO-OPERATORS AND THE WORKING
CLASSES GENERALLY IS . . .

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THE *Co-operative News* is not controlled by any particular section, but is the property of the Movement as a whole, and expresses its views on all questions of policy and administration frankly and fearlessly.

The constitution of *The Co-operative News* is "broad based upon a People's will," and the paper is representative of every phase of co-operative thought, and the collective wisdom of the whole Movement.

Owing to paper restrictions, development for the time being is suspended, but after the war *The Co-operative News* will widen its scope and embrace the larger issues and the greater responsibilities which the Movement has shouldered by entering into the political arena. Every working-class interest will be catered for so far as is consistent with co-operative principles.

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CO-OPERATIVE PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION.

HISTORY OF THE AGITATION.

THE proposal that co-operators should seek direct representation in Parliament first came into prominence at the Annual Congress which met in Perth in 1897. The matter was mentioned by the president, Mr. Wm. Maxwell, and discussed on a resolution proposed by the Norwich Society. The motion—"That the time has arrived for the direct representation of the co-operative movement in Parliament"—was carried unanimously, and remitted to the Central Board and the C.W.S. and S.C.W.S. for consideration and report.

At the next congress, held in Peterborough, the Joint Committee reported, and moved this resolution:—

That the replies do not warrant any further action being taken in the matter, as it is evident the time is not ripe to move on the lines proposed.

It was stated that the only practical support promised for the election expenses and maintenance of candidates was the sum of £93. An amendment that the matter be adjourned to the next Congress was carried.

This met in Liverpool in 1899, but no action was taken beyond referring it to the sections for further consideration. The Congress of 1900 assembled at Cardiff, and had before it the more general motion that necessary social and industrial reforms could be obtained only "by having direct independent working-class representation in the House of Commons." This proposal was heavily defeated, and the whole question remained in abeyance so far as Congress was concerned until 1905.

It reappeared at Paisley. A paper was read by the late Mr. Thomas Tweddell, which called attention to the size and varied interests of co-operation, and insisted that these interests touched politics at a thousand points. The paper summarised previous discussions of the question, answered current objections, and dwelt upon the

significance of the then new Labour Representation Committee. A resolution was moved on behalf of the Parliamentary Committee to the effect that it was necessary that co-operators as such should take a larger share in the legislative and administrative government of the country. This was carried by 654 votes to 271 against.

Immediately afterwards a second proposal was put forward, namely, to join forces with the Labour Representation Committee. Discussion on this was long and heated, and finally an amendment—

That . . . it is not advisable for the movement formally to ally itself with any political party—
was passed by 801 to 135 against.

There remained the first resolution, upon which the United Board acted by asking societies if they were in favour of it, and what annual grants they would be prepared to make. Circulars were sent out to 1,674 societies. Replies came from 141 only. Of these 129 were directly opposed to any Parliamentary representation of co-operators, four were indefinite, six in favour (and would contribute together about £25 annually), and two stood by an alliance with the Labour Representation Committee. These facts were considered by the Birmingham Congress in 1906, when the Central Board proposed—

That, inasmuch as there is no evidence that the movement is prepared to support direct representation in Parliament with the necessary financial assistance, the subject be now dropped.

It was—after much discussion and excitement—not to be taken up again until Congress met in Swansea in 1917.

At the Swansea Congress the following resolution, put forward by the Parliamentary Committee and accepted by the Central Board, was submitted:—

That, in the opinion of this Congress, the time has now arrived for the co-operative movement to take the necessary steps to secure

direct representation in Parliament and on all local administrative bodies.

It therefore calls upon the Central Board of the Co-operative Union to take such steps as may be necessary to put into operation the terms of the above resolution.

The resolution carried on a card vote by 1,979 to 201. Several conditions operated to bring about this result, chief among them the report of the Parliamentary Committee, making plain the disabilities under which the co-operators had suffered during the war. These were the application of the excess profits tax to co-operative dividends, the disregard of the movement by the Government and its departments and controllers, and the alleged unfair treatment many societies had received from tribunals under the Military Service Acts. The knowledge of these things served to carry the resolution with great enthusiasm and almost unanimity.

In accordance with its instructions the Central Board prepared a scheme to carry into effect the purpose of the resolution. This, as approved by a National Emergency Conference held in London on October 17th and 18th, 1917, was as follows:—

SCHEME FOR CO-OPERATIVE
PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION.

PART I. NATIONAL ORGANISATION.

FUNDS.

A Central Parliamentary Representation Fund shall be established by an emergency call of a minimum subscription of £2 per thousand members (or fractional part thereof) from the retail distributive societies, and, later, by such additional sums as may become necessary, supplemented by such grants as the wholesale and productive societies may make from time to time.

The fund shall be administered by the Co-operative Union Limited, on the recommendations of a Central Parliamentary Representation Committee, and on the lines of "grants in aid" to constituencies in such amounts as the situation warrants and the Committee may determine. The

amount of such grant shall be determined after careful inquiry as to the needs of the particular constituency, and after consultation with the local election committee.

Only actual expenses of elections shall be chargeable against the Central Parliamentary Representation Fund. The necessary preliminary expenses of launching the scheme, and until the adoption of the co-operative candidate for the first election in which the movement takes part, shall be a charge on the general funds of the Union.

CONSTITUTIONAL AUTHORITY.

The Central Parliamentary Representation Committee shall be for the time being a sub-committee of the Joint Parliamentary Committee, and shall consist of eight members drawn from the Parliamentary Committee, four of whom shall be representatives of the Co-operative Union, two representatives each of the English and Scottish Wholesale Societies, two members directly elected by the Central Board of the Co-operative Union, to which shall be added one representative of the English and one representative of the Scottish Women's Co-operative Guild.

The expenses incurred by members of this committee in attending its meetings shall be borne by the respective organisations which they represent.

CONSTITUENCIES.

The Co-operative Union will make full inquiries of all societies as to the prospects of successfully promoting Parliamentary candidatures.

The information so obtained will be carefully tabulated, and the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee will afterwards select likely constituencies for fuller investigation, with a view to the compilation of a list of constituencies in which we may hope to run candidates.

The Central Parliamentary Representation Committee shall cause personal inquiries to be made, by deputing one of their number or an official of the Committee to visit the constituency and confer with the local council or joint council, in order to

confirm at first hand the information so obtained.

Before the inclusion of any constituency in the list is confirmed and published to the societies, the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee shall ask the local council to call a joint meeting of all co-operative societies in the constituency, with a view to testing the local feeling on the subject. A representative from the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee shall attend and report to his committee on the proceedings.

If the report be again favourable to further action, a still further enlargement of local influence should be suggested, and understandings secured, with organisations other than co-operative having similar aims, which joint body, when fully organised, should appoint an election executive for the constituency.

SELECTION OF CANDIDATES.

In each constituency to be contested the local organisation shall be at liberty to make its own choice of candidates for the list to be compiled by the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee, and the local council shall include the qualifications of each person whose name is suggested for the list. A list of candidates shall be prepared by the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee from the names that are sent in by local councils.

No person other than a *bona fide* member of a co-operative society which is a member of the Co-operative Union Limited is eligible for adoption as a Parliamentary candidate.

Failing agreement as to any name on the list, the local council may suggest any person they deem desirable, provided that both central and local organisations agree as to the suitability of the person proposed.

Whenever a meeting is held in any constituency for the purpose of selecting a candidate, some official or member of the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee shall be present, and shall report to that committee as to the regularity of the procedure, &c., before the final endorsement of the candidature takes place.

PART II. LOCAL COUNCILS.

In order that due effect may be given to the resolution of the Swansea Congress, on the representation of co-operators in Parliament and on local administrative bodies, it is desirable that in every Parliamentary constituency (or group of constituencies) there should be formed a local council of the co-operative society (or societies) operating within the area.

It is, therefore, recommended that the constitution of such councils should be on the following lines:—

OBJECTS.

The objects of the council should be to organise the co-operative vote in every constituency or group of constituencies, and, where possible, to secure the direct representation of co-operators in Parliament, and on county and local municipal bodies, and on the magisterial bench, administrative committees (national and local) appointed to deal with any war emergency matters; to voice the special claims of the movement to Parliamentary consideration; and generally to use the vote so organised to obtain for the co-operative movement a larger share in the national and local civic life.

CONSTITUTION OF LOCAL COUNCILS.

(a) The councils should be so constituted that their numbers and sphere of influence may be easily altered to admit of co-operation with the local trades council, trades unions, friendly societies, and any other organisations pursuing similar objects, whose co-operation may be desired.

In the first instance, the preliminary meeting for the formation of such a council should be convened by the management committee of the local co-operative society. Where more than one society exists in any given constituency, the initiative in convening the preliminary meeting might be taken by the oldest society.

In the event of the failure in any area of any society to take the preliminary steps, the District Conference Association should intervene and endeavour to promote the formation of such a council.

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It is strongly recommended that only one council should be appointed in each constituency or group of constituencies, in which all the societies should be induced to participate.

(b) The needs of different districts will vary, but, as a preliminary, the council might be composed as follows:—

Where only one co-operative society operates in the constituency—

The management committee of the society.

The educational committee of the society, or such proportion of its membership as will not exceed the number of the management committee.

One representative of each local branch, or group of branches, of the Women's Co-operative Guild.

Representatives of the Men's Guilds in similar proportions.

A suitable number of representatives directly elected by and from the general meeting of members of the society.

(c) Where more than one society operates within the constituency, or group of constituencies, the representation of each society should be proportionately reduced in order to keep the council within reasonable dimensions. The proportions should be determined on the basis of membership of the societies, and the members of the societies directly elected should equal at least half the total number.

(d) An executive committee of not more than twelve members should be appointed from the council to carry out the decisions of the council meetings, to supervise propaganda and canvassing, and to conduct correspondence and negotiations with the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee.

(e) When the council is constituted on the above lines, its existence should at once be given the fullest local publicity, and it should be registered, after formal application, with the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee as a duly formed council and an auxiliary of the central office.

(f) Variation of this constitution may be allowed, subject to the approval of

the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee.

METHODS OF WORK.

The councils would, of course, be autonomous so far as their general local work is concerned, but, in matters which must receive the support of the Central Parliamentary Representation Committee, they would be required to observe the conditions laid down in the foregoing scheme for national organisation.

FINANCE.

The exact financial contribution of each constituent society is a matter which must be left to local adjustment, after full consideration of the probable cost of the work to be undertaken.

In any appeal to their societies for financial grants, or the alteration of rules to provide for the allocation of surplus for these purposes, committees are strongly advised to ask their members for one inclusive contribution or allocation to cover both national and local purposes.

Each council should prepare and issue an annual report and financial statement.

POLITICAL POLICY.

The following policy was adopted by the Congress:—

1. To safeguard effectually the interests of voluntary co-operation, and to resist any legislative or administrative inequality which would hamper its progress.

2. That eventually the processes of production, distribution, and exchange (including the land) shall be organised on co-operative lines in the interests of the whole community.

3. That the profiteering of private speculators and the trading community generally shall be eliminated by legislative or administrative action.

4. The scientific development of agriculture, and the provision of light railways for transport of produce, together with adequate housing and wages for the agricultural labourer.

5. The abolition of all taxes upon foodstuffs to be replaced by the taxation of land values and the further increase of income tax and death duties upon large incomes and estates.

6. That in order to facilitate the development of trade, commerce, and manufacture after the war, the Government shall establish a National Credit Bank to assist local authorities, co-operative societies, and others to finance their new undertakings as required.

7. That adequate housing of the people, financed by the National Exchequer, shall be compulsorily provided on lines which will secure healthy, decent, and suitable accommodation for the whole community.

8. That the present education system should be recast on national lines which will afford equal opportunity of the highest education to all, unhampered

by the caste system now prevailing, which arbitrarily and unjustly limits the resources of the State in utilising the best capacities of the nation.

9. The effective Parliamentary control of foreign policy and national services by committees composed of representatives of all parties in the House of Commons.

10. The gradual demobilisation of the soldiers and sailors from our army and navy to correspond with the needs of industry, in order to avoid unemployment.

11. The breaking down of the caste and class systems, and the democratising of State services—civil, commercial, and diplomatic.



CO-OPERATORS ON PUBLIC BODIES.

NOW that co-operators have determined to enter Parliament and seek representation on local bodies throughout the country special interest attaches to the present position.

We have been able to compile a list of members of co-operative societies on all public bodies; and, although the figures given below apply to only 900 of the societies in the United Kingdom, they are indicative of the strength of the nucleus with which the new phase of co-operation opens its career.

On County Councils	291
„ District, Urban, and Rural Councils	1,625
„ Parish Councils	2,216
„ Town and City Councils	878
„ Boards of Guardians	1,110
„ Education Authorities	1,307
„ Food Control Committees.....	1,251
Justices of the Peace	1,100

One effect of the formation of councils for securing direct co-operative representation in legislative and administrative affairs will be to establish a line of demarcation that will render the compilation of exact returns an easier matter in the future.

Members of agricultural co-operative societies are to be found in the House of Lords, and the Midland Farmers' Co-operative Association has a quartette of such in the Duke of Portland, Lord Belper, Lord Harrington, and Lord Middleton; Lord Boston is a member of the Dulas Agricultural Co-operative Society and also of the Foel Agricultural Co-operative Society, the latter of which has also the Marquis of Anglesey among its members; Lord Glanusk is associated with the West Breconshire Farmers' Association Limited.

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All the political parties are represented in the members of co-operative societies who have found their way to the House of Commons. The following list is by no means complete, but will serve as a beginning. It will grow quickly in the next few years.

Members of Parliament.	Party.	Constituency.	Majority	Member of Co-operative Society.
Anderson, W. C.	Lab.	Sheffield (Attercliffe) . .	Unop.	Edmonton.
Archdale, E. M.	C.	Fermanagh, North	Unop.	Enniskillen.
Barnes, Rt. Hon. G. N. . . .	Lab.	Glasgow (Blackfriars) . .	1,278	Woolwich.
Bathurst, Capt.	C.	South Wilts.	587	Fonthill Bishop & Dis. Co-operative Society.
Brunner, J. F. L.	L.	Northwich	330	Northwich.
Burt, Rt. Hon. T.	L.	Morpeth	Unop.	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
Clough, Wm.	L.	Skipton	51	Steeton.
Clynes, J. R.	Lab.	Manchester, N.E.	205	Oldham Equitable.
Crooks, Will	Lab.	Woolwich	236	Woolwich.
Duncan, C.	Lab.	Barrow	520	Willesden.
Fenwick, Rt. Hon. C.	L.	Wansbeck	Unop.	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
Finney, S.	Lab.	Staffs., N.W.	Unop.	Burslem.
Galbraith, S.	Lab.	Mid-Durham	Unop.	Brandon & Byshottles.
Goldstone, F. W.	Lab.	Sunderland	991	Edmonton.
Hancock, J. G.	Lab.	Mid-Derbyshire	2,270	Cinder Hill.
Harvey, T. E.	L.	Leeds, N.	4,270	Anchor (London).
Henderson, Rt. Hon. A. . . .	Lab.	Barnard Castle	1,445	Woolwich.
Jardine, Bt., Sir J.	L.	Roxburgh	204	Godalming.
John, E. T.	L.	Denbigh, East	3,263	Foel Agric. Co-op. Soc.
Jones, Rt. Hon. Leif S. . . .	L.	Rushcliffe	2,606	Castle Howard & Dist.
Jowett, F. W.	Lab.	Bradford, W.	3,390	Bradford.
Kenyon, B.	L.	Chesterfield	2,186	Clown.
Levy, Bt., Sir Maurice	L.	Loughborough	572	Midland Farmers' Co-op. Association.
Macdonald, J. R.	Lab.	Leicester	5,451	Edmonton.
Maden, Sir J. H.	L.	Rossendale	4,215	Bacup.
Morrell, P.	L.	Burnley	173	Oxford.
Mount, W. A.	C.	Newbury	2,207	Aldermaston.
Parker, J.	Lab.	Halifax	3,909	Halifax.
Roberts, C. H.	L.	Lincoln	603	Castle Howard & Dist.
Roberts, Rt. Hon. G. H. . . .	Lab.	Norwich	Unop.	Norwich.
Roch, W. F.	L.	Pembrokeshire	2,693	Vale of Tivy Agric. Soc.
Smith, Capt. A.	Lab.	Clitheroe	6,324	Nelson.
Snowden, P.	Lab.	Blackburn	948	Hendon.
Starkey, Capt. J. R.	C.	Newark	742	Midland Farmers' Co-op. Association.
Sutton, J. E.	Lab.	Manchester, East	871	Beswick.
Taylor, J. W.	Lab.	Chester-le-Street	Unop.	Annfield Plain.
Thomas, Rt. Hon. J. H.	Lab.	Derby	984	Edmonton.
Tootill, R.	Lab.	Bolton	Unop.	Bolton.
Wardle, G. J.	Lab.	Stockport	860	Edmonton.
Wilkie, A.	Lab.	Dundee	3,272	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
Williams, Ancurin	L.	Durham, N.W.	1,677	Haslemere.
Williams, J.	Lab.	Gower Division	953	Swansea.
Winfrey, Sir R.	L.	Norfolk, S.W.	431	Marshland & Wingland Agric. Association Ltd

The above members of Parliament, being members of co-operative societies, are all, no doubt, more or less interested in co-operation. The names include many who are active in its welfare, and are ever ready to support its claims. The members of co-operative societies on other public bodies provide an encouraging list. They are not all actively associated with local co-operation, and some, perhaps, do not take much interest in the society. But the list suggests the need for some organisation in the movement whereby public representatives who are members of co-operative societies might be brought into unity on matters helpful and useful to co-operative policy and principle.

CO-OPERATIVE ORGANISATIONS.

CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LIMITED.

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

Chairman: T. KILLON. Secretary: T. BRODRICK.

The C.W.S., founded 1863, is a federation of societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Acts for wholesale co-operative supply. It has branches at Newcastle and London, and distributive depôts or salerooms at Bristol, Cardiff, Northampton, Birmingham, Leeds, Nottingham, Blackburn, and at Liverpool. It has upwards of fifty works, factories, or mills for the manufacture of foodstuffs, clothing, soap, furnishings, &c. Its Banking Department acts for the greater number of co-operative societies in England and Wales, and for trade unions and friendly societies. Its Insurance Department—the Co-operative Insurance Society—undertakes life (ordinary, collective, and industrial), fire, accident, employers' liability, and other business. C.W.S. activities also cover farming, coal-mining, engineering, printing, and publishing. Its professional departments include architects, solicitors, dentistry, auditors, chemical research, and journalists. Statistics and details of its trade and work are referred to elsewhere in this volume.

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY LTD.

MORRISON STREET, GLASGOW.

President: ROBERT STEWART. Secretary: JOHN PEARSON.

Accountant: R. MACINTOSH.

The S.C.W.S. is a federation of co-operative societies for wholesale trade and manufacture, and (with the English C.W.S.) for the business of insurance, tea growing, and wheat production.

IRISH AGRICULTURAL WHOLESALE SOCIETY LTD.

155, THOMAS STREET, DUBLIN.

Chairman: H. M. BARBOUR, M.A. Secretary: R. M. SMITH.

The I.A.W.S. is an association to supply the needs of its federated societies and provide a market for their produce. Its activities include banking and dairy engineering.

CO-OPERATIVE INSURANCE SOCIETY LIMITED.

109, CORPORATION STREET, MANCHESTER.

Manager: J. ODGERS. Secretary: T. BRODRICK.

The C.I.S., founded 1867, is now the Joint Insurance Department of the English and Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Societies. It undertakes all kinds of insurance business, including life, fire, accident, burglary, fidelity, employers' liability, &c., and has just acquired the Planet Friendly Assurance Collecting Society. It has branches and agents throughout the United Kingdom.

C.W.S. HEALTH INSURANCE SECTION.

1, BALLOON STREET, MANCHESTER.

Manager: R. SMITH. Secretary: T. BRODRICK.

An Approved Society (No. 214) under the Health Insurance Acts, established to administer for co-operators and others the benefits of the Acts.

CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTIVE FEDERATION LIMITED.

ALLIANCE CHAMBERS, HORSEFAIR STREET, LEICESTER.

Secretary: R. HALSTEAD.

The objects of the Federation are: To aid co-operative productive societies by united action; to open up a market for the sale of their goods; and to obtain capital for co-operative production. It has a membership of 48 societies, whose trade through the Federation for the year 1916 was £215,800.

AGRICULTURAL ORGANISATION SOCIETY LIMITED.

QUEEN ANNE'S CHAMBERS, TOTHILL STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.1.

Secretary: J. NUGENT HARRIS.

The Agricultural Organisation Society exists for the purpose of advocating the principles of co-operation amongst agriculturists, and of giving advice and assistance in the formation and organisation of properly registered co-operative agricultural societies in suitable districts throughout England and Wales. It does no trade and makes no profits. It is supported by voluntary contributions, but in addition receives grants from the development fund in aid of its work in the general development of agricultural co-operation, and from the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries in aid of the promotion of co-operation in connection with small holdings and allotments.

SCOTTISH

AGRICULTURAL ORGANISATION SOCIETY LIMITED.

5, ST. ANDREW'S SQUARE, EDINBURGH.

Secretary: J. DRYSDALE.

IRISH AGRICULTURAL ORGANISATION SOCIETY LTD.

PLUNKETT HOUSE, DUBLIN.

President: SIR HORACE PLUNKETT, K.C.V.O.

Secretary: R. A. ANDERSON.

Founded in 1889 for the organisation of co-operation among Irish farmers and farm labourers.

THE RUSSO-BRITISH INFORMATION BUREAU.

99, LEMAN STREET, E.C.1.

Joint Secretaries: J. BUBNOFF and F. ROCKELL.

The objects of the Bureau are the promotion of trade and commerce between co-operative organisations in the United Kingdom and Russia, and to gather information of use to the international development of trade.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION LIMITED.

HOLYOAKE HOUSE, HANOVER STREET, MANCHESTER.

Secretary: A. WHITEHEAD.

The Co-operative Union Limited (established 1867) is a federation of co-operative societies in the United Kingdom which conform to the provisions of the Industrial and Provident Societies Acts. Its functions are propaganda, legal assistance, co-operative education and defence. The annual Co-operative Congress is held under its auspices. Of the societies included in the statistical return for 1916 the following were—

	Number of Societies.	Per cent.	Membership of Societies.	Per cent.
Members of Union	1,308	88.3	3,456,619	96.91
Non-members of Union	173	11.7	110,120	3.09
Total.....	1,481		3,566,739	

For administrative purposes the Union divides the kingdom into sections, the secretaries of which are—

IRISH—W. M. Knox, 18, Frederick Street, Belfast.

MIDLAND—C. A. W. Saxton, 67, Rainbow Hill, Worcester.

NORTHERN—A. Stoddart, 84, Westmorland Road, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

NORTH-WESTERN—J. Bradshaw, Holyoake House, Hanover St., Manchester.

SCOTTISH—J. Deans, 263, Wallace Street, Kingston, Glasgow.

SOUTHERN—B. Williams, 66, Great Prescott Street, London, E.1.

SOUTH-WESTERN—R. Pearce, School House, Delabole, Cornwall.

WESTERN—W. H. Bryant, "Underwood," Cwmavon Road, Blaenavon (Mon.).

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.—HOLYOAKE HOUSE, HANOVER STREET, MANCHESTER.

Secretary: C. E. WOOD. Adviser of Studies: F. HALL, M.A., B.Com.

The Central Education Committee was formed as a special committee of the Co-operative Union in 1883-4. Among its activities it arranges syllabuses of study for classes in co-operation and allied subjects, and conducts correspondence classes; it holds examinations in the subjects, trains teachers, publishes text-books, and organises summer schools.

The Central Education Committee works in close association with the educational departments of the local societies. These are grouped into sectional associations, of which the secretaries are—

MIDLAND—Miss C. A. Woolley, 37, Conway Road, Leicester.

NORTHERN—W. Clayton, 84, Westmorland Road, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

NORTH-WESTERN—E. Couldwell, 384, City Road, Sheffield.

SOUTHERN—B. Williams and W. J. Foster, 66, Great Prescott Street, London, E.1.

SOUTH-WESTERN—W. White, 17, Lower Shirburn Road, Torquay.

WOMEN'S CO-OPERATIVE GUILD.

28, CHURCH ROW, HAMPSTEAD, N.W.3.

President: Mrs. J. BOOTH. Secretary: Miss M. LLEWELYN DAVIES.

The Guild was established in 1883, and has the following objects: To organise women, as co-operators, for the study and practice of (1) co-operation and other methods of social reform; (2) improved conditions of domestic life. In April, 1917, it had 630 branches, with a total membership

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of 27,060. The subjects selected for discussion during the year 1917-18 include the following: (a) "Co-operative Democracy," (b) "The Co-operative Commonwealth: How Women's Votes can Help to Build it," (c) "Co-operative Propaganda," (d) "National Care of Maternity," (e) "Co-operation and Taxation," (f) "Co-operation and International Life," (g) "Labour During and After the War," (h) "Cash Trading."

SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WOMEN'S GUILD.

President: Mrs. TULLOCH.

Secretary: Mrs. J. LAMONT, 1, Orwell Terrace, Edinburgh.

The Scottish Guild has similar objects to those of the English. In 1917 it had a membership of 1,423 in 191 branches.

IRISH CO-OPERATIVE WOMEN'S GUILD.

President: Mrs. A. C. HUSBAND.

Secretary: Mrs. M. T. Mc.COUBREY, 31, Candahar Street, Belfast

CO-OPERATIVE SECRETARIES' ASSOCIATION.

Secretary: J. JARMAN, 17, Wilson Patten Street, Warrington.

Membership 450, chiefly in England and Wales.

NATIONAL CO-OPERATIVE MANAGERS' ASSOCIATION.

Secretary: J. BRADSHAW, 17, St. Peter's Hill, Grantham.

Federated with the National organisation are the following district associations, or sections:—

BIRMINGHAM—Mr. Bush, Co-operative Stores, Rugeley, Staffs.

BRISTOL—Mr. Jackson, 34, Vicarage Road, Gloucester.

HUDDERSFIELD—F. Moss, Co-operative Society, Hinchliffe, Holmfirth, Huddersfield.

LEEDS—Mr. Sharp, Co-operative Stores, Hull.

LONDON—Mr. Werry, Co-operative Society, High Wycombe, Bucks.

MANCHESTER (GENERAL GROCERY)—Mr. Fishwick, 16, Myrtle Terrace, Sowerby Bridge, Yorks.

MANCHESTER (DRAPERY)—Mr. Darbyshire, 162, Blackburn Road, Great Harwood, near Blackburn.

MANCHESTER (FURNISHING)—Mr. Garlick, 634, Rochdale Road, Royton, near Manchester.

MANCHESTER (TAILORS)—Mr. Willmer, 12, Countess Lane, Radcliffe, near Manchester.

MANCHESTER (BOOTS)—Mr. Rathbone, 33, Keswick Road, St. Helens, Lancs.

MANCHESTER (COAL)—E. Collins, 85, Chapel Lane, Blackley, Manchester.

MANCHESTER (BUTCHERY)—Thos. Pegg, Asbury House, Leigh, Lancs.

NEWCASTLE—Mr. Thompson, 8, Byron Avenue, Willington Quay-on-Tyne.

NORTHAMPTON—W. J. Cure, Co-operative Stores, Rushden, Northants.

NOTTINGHAM—Mr. Judd, 124, Laurie Avenue, Nottingham.

EAST SCOTLAND—Mr. Lennox, c/o Co-operative Society, Kirkcaldy, Scotland.

WEST SCOTLAND—Mr. Dykes, 4, Trees Avenue, Barrhead, Scotland.

SOUTH WALES—Mr. Whitney, Co-operative Stores, Tredegar, South Wales.

NATIONAL UNION OF CO-OPERATIVE OFFICIALS.

Secretary: J. JARMAN, 17, Wilson Patten Street, Warrington.

Registered in 1917 under the Trade Union Acts to give the benefits of trade unionism to co-operative officials.

CO-OPERATIVE NEWSPAPER SOCIETY LIMITED.

22, LONG MILLGATE, MANCHESTER.

Chairman: J. ELLIOTT, J.P. Secretary: W. M. BAMFORD.

This society is a federation of distributive societies owning the *Co-operative News* and other publications devoted to the co-operative movement.

THE AMALGAMATED UNION OF CO-OPERATIVE AND COMMERCIAL EMPLOYÉS AND ALLIED WORKERS.

22, LONG MILLGATE, MANCHESTER.

Secretary: J. HALLSWORTH.

Manager of Health Insurance Section: R. J. DAVIES.

Founded as the "Manchester and District Co-operative Employés' Association" in 1891, by amalgamation with other associations it became national in scope, and in 1895 the name was changed to the "Amalgamated Union of Co-operative Employés," in which year it was registered as a trade union. It adopted a militant attitude in 1911 by making provision for a strike fund. Its membership is now open to other than co-operative employés. The membership of the co-operative section is 69,800. The Union is also a State Approved Society with 32,500 insured members, divided into 26,000 males and 6,500 females. Of the total membership of the A.U.C.E. 21,000 have enlisted in H.M. forces.

MISCELLANEOUS ASSOCIATIONS.

ARBITRATION LEAGUE, INTERNATIONAL, 39, Victoria Street, London, S W.1.—President: Right Hon. Thomas Burt, M.P.; Chairman: John Morgan; Secretary: F. Maddison.

For nearly half a century the League has been at work, organising meetings, distributing leaflets and pamphlets, publishing its monthly organ, *The Arbitrator*, and playing a leading part in the long battle against those forces of militarism which, by preserving the institution of war and armaments, demoralise the peoples and at the same time waste their very means of subsistence.

BRIBERY AND SECRET COMMISSIONS PREVENTION LEAGUE, 9, Queen Street Place, E.C.4.—President: Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Fry, G.C.B.; Chairman: Stanley Machin; Secretary: R. M. Leonard.

The objects of the League are to secure the observance of the Prevention of Corruption Act; to educate public opinion on the subject; to warn, and, when necessary, prosecute offenders; and to advise members. The latter number some 400.

CLUB AND INSTITUTE UNION, WORKING MEN'S, Club Union Buildings, Clerkenwell Road, London, E.C.—President: J. J. Dent; Secretary: B. T. Hall.

A federation of working men's clubs and institutes throughout the country.

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COMMERCE, ASSOCIATED CHAMBERS OF, OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, Parliament Mansions, Victoria Street, S.W.1.—President: Sir Algernon F. Firth, Bart.; Secretary: R. B. Dunwoody, A.M.I.C.E., F.R.G.S.

CRUELTY TO ANIMALS, ROYAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF, 105, Jermyn Street, S.W.1.—President: The Most Hon. the Marquess of Cambridge, G.C.B., G.C.V.O.; Chairman of Council: Col. Sir E. W. D. Ward, Bart., K.C.B., K.C.V.O. J.P.; Secretary: Sydney G. Polhill.

CRUELTY TO CHILDREN, NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF, 40, Leicester Square, W.C.2.—Chairman of Executive Committee: Right Hon. the Earl of Pembroke; Vice-Chairman: Mr. F. P. Whitbread; Deputy Vice-Chairman: Hon. A. Holland-Hibbert; Director: Robert J. Parr, O.B.E.

FABIAN SOCIETY, 25, Tothill Street, Westminster, S.W.1.—Hon. Secretary: Edward R. Pease; Secretary: W. S. Sanders.

The object of the Society is the advocacy of the principles of socialism, largely by educational methods. It publishes its own works, chiefly in a series of Fabian tracts, and it also provides boxes of books on political and social subjects from any standpoint for any organisation, such as a co-operative society or trade union branch. It supplies lecturers, though this side of its work is largely dormant during the war.

GARDEN CITIES AND TOWN PLANNING ASSOCIATION, 3, Gray's Inn Place, Gray's Inn, London, W.C.1.—President: Marquis of Salisbury, K.G.; Chairman of Council: Cecil Harmsworth, M.P.; Secretary: Ewart G. Culpin.

Its aim is the establishment of garden cities, garden villages, and garden suburbs, and improved housing upon these lines by societies of public utility.

HODGSON PRATT MEMORIAL, 60, Knatchbull Road, Camberwell, S.E.5.—President: Sir Henry J. Vansittart Neale, K.C.B.; Hon. Sec.: J. J. Dent.

The Memorial is a society registered to administer the fund raised by co-operative and peace societies, workmen's clubs, and personal friends, with the object of keeping alive the memory of the late Mr. Hodgson Pratt.

HOLIDAY FELLOWSHIP LTD., THE, "Bryn Corach," Conway, North Wales.—President: Arnold S. Rowntree, M.P.; Secretary: T. A. Leonard.

Aims to organise holiday making, provide for the healthy enjoyment of leisure, encourage the love of the open air, and to promote social and international friendship.

HOLIDAYS ASSOCIATION, CO-OPERATIVE, 225, Brunswick Street, Manchester.—President: Right Hon. Sir Wm. Mather, P.C.; Secretary: H. P. Weston, M.A.

Exists to apply the principle of co-operation to holiday making, and to promote rational enjoyment in a healthy atmosphere.

LABOUR PARTY, 1, Victoria Street, S.W.1.—Parliamentary Party:—Chairman: W. Adamson, M.P.; Secretary: C. Duncan, M.P. Labour Party Executive:—Chairman: W. F. Purdy; Secretary: Right Hon. Arthur Henderson, M.P.

LAND NATIONALISATION SOCIETY, 96, Victoria Street, S.W.1.—President: John W. Logan, J.P.; Chairman of Executive: H. Baillie-Weaver, LL.B.; Secretary: Joseph Hyder.

LIFEBOAT INSTITUTION, ROYAL NATIONAL, 22, Charing Cross Road, London, W.C.2.—President: His Grace the Duke of Northumberland, K.G.; Chairman: Right Hon. the Earl of Waldegrave, P.C., V.P.; Secretary: G. F. Shee, M.A.

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NATIONAL UNION OF ALLOTMENT HOLDERS.—Chairman: Tom Bladon, Birmingham; Organising Secretaries: G. Streetly, 55, Temple Row, Birmingham, and D. Chater, 8, Buckingham Street, London, W.C.

This is a federation of allotment societies formed to give expression to the desires of allotment holders throughout the country.

STATISTICAL SOCIETY, THE ROYAL, 9, Adelphi Terrace, Strand, W.C.2.—President: Sir Bernard Mallet, K.C.B.; Hon Secs.: G. Udny Yule, M.A., Alfred W. Flux, M.A., T. H. C. Stevenson, M.D.; Asst. Sec.: C. M. Kohan, B.A.; Librarian: John A. P. Mackenzie.

TRADES UNION CONGRESS PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEE, General Buildings, Aldwych, W.C.—President: J. W. Ogden, J.P.; Vice-Chairman: J. Hill, J.P.; Secretary: Right Hon. C. W. Bowerman, M.P.;

TRADE UNIONS, GENERAL FEDERATION OF, Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, London, W.C.—Chairman: J. O'Grady, J.P., M.P.; Secretary: W. A. Appleton.

WAR EMERGENCY: WORKERS' NATIONAL COMMITTEE, 1, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.1.—Chairman: R. Smillie; Secretary: J. S. Middleton.

This committee has been in existence since the beginning of the war, watching working-class interests. It has done useful work in connection with the allowances to soldiers' wives and dependents, the fixing of house rents, and maintaining public action.

WOMEN'S INDUSTRIAL COUNCIL, 6, York Buildings, Adelphi, W.C.2.—Hon. President: H.E. the Countess of Aberdeen; President: Miss C. Black, Chairman of Executive; Secretary: Mrs. F. E. Dawson.

The Council is non-sectarian and independent of political parties. Its objects are to organise and carry out systematic inquiry into the conditions of employment of women in industry; to provide accurate information concerning those conditions; and to take or promote such action resulting from the survey as may seem conducive to their improvement.

WOMEN'S LABOUR LEAGUE, NATIONAL, 1, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.—General Secretary: Dr. Marion Phillips; Office Secretary: Miss Nora Stevens, 1, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.

The objects of the League are to express and forward the views of working women on all the political, social, and educational questions of the day, to strengthen the representation of Labour on all elected and other governing bodies, to watch over the interests of women and children especially, and to assist in the industrial organisation of women workers.

WOMEN WORKERS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, NATIONAL UNION OF, Parliamentary Mansions, Victoria Street, S.W.1.—President: Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon, D.Sc., Ph.D., F.L.S.; Organising Secretary: Miss Jones; Secretary: Miss N. E. Green.

The Union exists to promote co-operation among all the various organisations whose object is the welfare of the women of the community; it focuses and distributes information of use and interest to women; scrutinises Bills before Parliament; and arranges deputations in the interests of women workers.

WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 14, Red Lion Square, Holborn, W.C.1.—President: Rev. William Temple, M.A.; Secretary: J. M. Mactavish.

THE CO-OPERATIVE CONGRESS, 1917.

THE forty-ninth annual Co-operative Congress met at the Albert Hall, Swansea, on May 28th, 1917, under the presidency of Mr. E. R. Wood, of Ton, chairman of the Western Sectional Board. It was attended by 1,044 delegates and representatives.

The report of the Central Board was discussed, and, arising therefrom, important resolutions were carried. Among the subjects included was that of educational reconstruction, the demand being made—

(1) That the present half-time system be abolished, all exemptions below the age of fourteen discontinued, the leaving age at the close of the war being raised to fifteen. (2) That continued education be compulsory up to the age of eighteen, free from specialised craft education. (3) That maintenance grants for students be provided where necessary. (4) That the Government take such steps as are necessary to enable qualified candidates to pass to the Universities unhindered by considerations of expense. (5) That recognition be given to the importance of the teacher's personality in education by raising the status and increasing the salaries of teachers, to provide them with adequate reward for their services; and as a means of attracting and retaining in the service of education the men and women best fitted for the teaching profession.

On the question of the excess profits tax and its application to co-operative societies, it was resolved:—

That this Congress, whilst recognising the present necessity for a special tax on excess profits arising from, or made possible by, the war conditions, indignantly protests against the tax being levied on co-operative societies, as such societies do not make profits, and cannot, therefore, make excess profits; and the imposition upon them of this tax has produced serious anomalies and inflicted grave injustice upon many societies. This Congress therefore urges upon the Government the desirability of effecting such amendments to the Finance Acts as will remove from co-operative societies the intolerable burden of this tax.

A further resolution on the subject of income tax affirmed the determination to maintain—

The sound economic position of the co-operative movement in relation to taxation, which has been declared by the Inland Revenue authorities for many years past, and confirmed by successive Chancellors of the Exchequer.

In view of the fact that the co-operative movement was the only organised body of consumers and represented one-quarter of the population of the United Kingdom, and was also desirous of being of the greatest possible service to the State, the Parliamentary Committee was instructed to take all possible steps to the end that representatives of co-operative organisations be included upon the personnel of the staffs of expert advisers attached to the special administrative bodies dealing with matters arising from the war:

and also representation upon the departmental committees appointed from time to time.

Vital resolutions were passed upon the subject of the direct representation of co-operators in Parliament. These are dealt with elsewhere.*

The Trades Union Congress, which met at Birmingham in September, 1916, passed the following resolution:—

The Trades Union Congress is of opinion that the development of the co-operative movement is essential to an active trade union movement, and invites the Co-operative Union to appoint a committee of six to meet a similar number appointed by the Trades Union Congress to prepare plans for mutual assistance in developing the productive, distributive, and banking activities of the co-operative movement; always providing that the co-operative movement, as represented by the Co-operative Union Limited, is prepared to recognise the trade union rates of wages and conditions of employment as laid down by the trade unions affiliated to the Trades Union Congress.

It was, therefore, resolved to adopt the trade unionists' resolution, and the Central Board was authorised to appoint six representatives to meet a similar number appointed by the Trades Union Congress.

The Congress considered it as advisable, in the interests of the consumer, that farming should be undertaken by distributive societies, either individually or in federation, as a means of controlling prices and supplies of foodstuffs and raw materials. Further resolutions were to the effect that:—

In view of the importance of obtaining the sufficient production and effective distribution of pure milk, it is in the national interest that the supply should be permanently under Government control, and its sales supervised by the granting of licences to those distributors only whose methods are in accordance with regulations so framed as to secure cleanliness, purity, economy of distribution, and a fair price to the consumer.

That this Co-operative Congress is of opinion that the railways and waterways of the United Kingdom should be nationalised and worked in the interests of the people's convenience in travel, trade, and commerce. The shareholders to be treated in a fair and equitable manner.

It was decided that the 1918 Congress, being the jubilee of the Co-operative Congress, should be held in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester.

* See "Direct Representation," page 74.



CO-OPERATIVE SALES PER HEAD.

The average annual sales per member of retail co-operative societies in the United Kingdom is £34·57. This is made up in the various sections of the Co-operative Union as follows:—Scottish, £46·79; Northern, £42·19; Western, £42·08; Irish, £33·34; North-Western, £33·15; Midland, £29·6; Southern, £25·77; South-Western, £21·12. Any comparisons are subject to the qualification that some societies admit only one in a household to membership, while other societies permit open membership.

WOMEN'S CO-OPERATIVE GUILD CONGRESS, 1917.

THE thirty-fourth Congress of the Women's Co-operative Guild met at the Baths, Torquay, on June 19th, 1917, under the presidency of Mrs. Wilkin, of Hartlepool. It was attended by over 300 delegates. A resolution was passed welcoming the Russian Revolution as "the dawn of a new day for freedom and brotherhood," and the hope that it would "lay the foundation for the international co-operation essential to world-wide peace." The Congress expressed its opinion upon credit trading as follows:—

Seeing that credit trading is widespread in the movement, this Congress considers that a fresh campaign should be started and vigorously carried on till credit is stamped out of the co-operative movement.

Further resolutions passed included the following:—

That this Congress directs the attention of the Government to the urgency of the housing problem, and considers that the fundamental way of dealing with the question should be to remove rates from houses and improvements, and place them on land values, so as to stimulate building; but calls on the Government to enable local authorities to take such steps at once as are necessary to meet the immediate needs of the people.

That this Congress urges—(1) The immediate creation of a Ministry of Health, based on the Local Government Board, of which an essential element must be a strong maternity department and a national medical service. (2) The extension of the powers of local health authorities, so as to enable them to carry out the maternity services required. (3) The provision of adequate Exchequer grants, to be so disbursed as (a) to stimulate the work of local authorities, and (b) to provide a public health maternity allowance of 10s. a week for two weeks before and four weeks after confinement for all women below the old income tax limit of £160. (4) That maternity committees of local public health authorities be made compulsory.

That this Congress is of opinion that the school-leaving age should be raised to sixteen years of age, and that all children not later than twelve years of age should pass automatically from the elementary to secondary schools; also that Government maintenance grants be allowed to parents whilst their children are at secondary schools.

That this Congress protests against the tremendous advance in the prices of substitutes for bread and potatoes, demands the readjustment of the Government control policy in order to prevent profiteering, claims adequate representation for the co-operative movement on all Government committees connected with food control, and calls the attention of the Government to the fact that the Russian Government has placed co-operators in control of the food supplies, and urges that co-operators should be placed on the staffs of the Food Controller in place of the representatives of profit-making firms.

That this Congress calls attention to the undemocratic proposals put forward by the Survey Committee, which would retain and increase methods of indirect election and place rank-and-file bodies under official control, and urges the movement to support the following proposals:—(1) That the executive of the Co-operative Union should be directly

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electd from members' meetings, consist of seventeen members, of whom two should be women nationally elected by societies; (2) that the Central Education Committee should be directly elected at members' meetings; and (3) that rank-and-file bodies should be independent of official control, though working jointly with official bodies wherever desirable, and should receive grants from the Co-operative Union on the general value of their work to the movement.

That this Congress declares that it is urgent, from the co-operative and national standpoints, that every adult man and woman should be enfranchised during this Parliament, and is of opinion that, in order to protect the interests of co-operative societies and to secure to co-operation its proper place in the life of the nation, co-operators should seek representation in Parliament, a working basis being found with other forces.

That this Congress declares that the fundamental need for the workers after the war will be to maintain and raise their wages, and with this end urges that increased trade union action, the establishment of a co-operative system of industry, and the taxation of land values should be the main planks in the workers' platform, while a minimum wage equal to a pre-war minimum of 30s. a week, which would be so long as war-inflated prices continue not less than 60s. a week, should be established for all adults, and men's standard rates should be paid to women who enter processes and occupations previously confined to men.

The Women's Guild Congress in 1918 will meet at Bradford, in Yorkshire.

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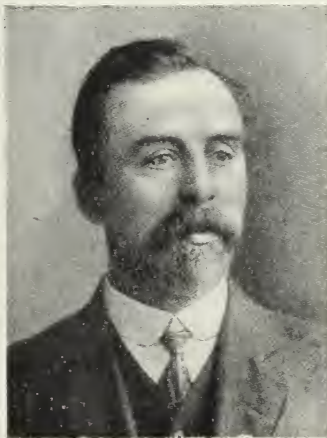
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the Co-operative Movement.



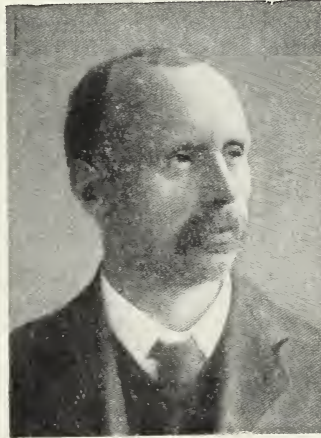
Mrs. J. BOOTH,
President,
Women's Co-operative Guild.



Miss LLEWELYN DAVIES,
General Secretary,
Women's Co-operative Guild.



W. R. RAE,
Chairman, Central Educational
Committee, Co-operative Union.



W. H. WATKINS,
Chairman of Council,
National Men's Guild.

CO-OPERATIVE "EXCESS PROFITS."

THE AMOUNT PAID BY SOCIETIES.

AN inquiry made at the beginning of October, 1917, as to the amount paid by co-operative societies in England and Wales under the excess profits tax yielded the following results. Excluding the C.W.S., 853 societies furnished returns, and of these 630 had paid nothing in excess "profits." The Exchequer had collected from 223 societies the sum of £353,167, being £123,644 for the first accounting period and £229,523 for the second. More than one-third of this total (or £154,000) was levied on the nineteen large societies, which each paid over £5,000. The inquiry was made by the Co-operative Press Agency.

It will be noted that the incidence of the tax fell much more heavily in the second period than in the first, because, of course, the continued general inflation of prices increased the liability of co-operative societies to make excess "profits." Notwithstanding this fact, some societies (under Sub-Section 3, Section 38) had been able to claim for the second period the whole or part of the payment made for the first. According to the returns, £9,145 had already been refunded, and claims were lodged for another £4,000. In the third period, for which it was impossible to obtain returns, it was expected that much larger amounts would be refunded. Thus the amount paid by the societies which furnished returns in England and Wales was as follows:—

Societies.	No.	First Accounting Period.	Second Accounting Period.	Total.
		£	£	£
Societies assessed for over £5,000.....	19	56,150	97,850	154,000
Societies assessed for less than £5,000...	204	67,494	131,673	199,167
Societies not liable for the tax	630	—	—	—
Total Societies making returns	853	123,644	229,523	353,167

The C.W.S., as stated by the secretary at the September quarterly meeting, had paid £515,000, pending a definite assessment. The estimated total, therefore, paid by wholesale and retail societies in England and Wales was £868,167. No returns have been compiled of the amount of excess profits tax paid by Scottish retail societies. The S.C.W.S., by October 1st, had paid £103,151.

TRADES UNION CONGRESS.

IN September, 1918, the Trades Union Congress will celebrate its jubilee. The Congress of 1917 took place at Blackpool on September 3rd, the chairman being Mr. J. Hill, J.P. (general secretary of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, and chairman of the Congress Parliamentary Committee). The composition of the gathering was as follows:—

Groups of Trades.	1916.			1917.		
	No of Organisations.	No. of Delegates.	No. of Members.	No. of Organisations.	No. of Delegates.	No. of Members.
Building	7	17	143,000	10	24	175,132
Mining and Quarrying.....	11	178	625,480	10	175	623,013
Engineering	11	24	113,419	12	29	137,806
Shipbuilding (including Boiler-making)	3	10	104,380	3	10	109,370
Other Metal Trades	29	64	149,472	26	74	162,770
Textiles	18*	119	344,159	20*	123	357,365
Clothing	6	18	94,230	6	21	119,546
Transport (Land and Water) ..	19	75	576,121	18	73	612,946
Chemical, Gas, and General Labourers	9.	45	244,385	9	42	310,582
Printing, Bookbinding, &c.....	11	28	92,419	11	26	92,509
Pottery and Glass	4	5	11,380	5	6	17,363
Woodworking, Furnishing, &c...	10	13	51,099	10	14	54,579
Baking and Cigar Making.....	4	7	13,755	4	8	15,806
Enginemen	6	18	49,980	7	20	47,465
Post Office Employés.....	4	8	84,908	4	8	95,904
Miscellaneous	18	41	135,652	19	39	136,836
Total.....	170	670	2,833,839	174	692	3,068,992

* In some of the textile, &c., trades not only are amalgamated associations represented as such, but the branch associations of which they consist send separate delegates. These branch associations have not been reckoned as separate organisations.

The number of organisations accounted for in the above statement is 174, but some of these organisations are federations having members of several of their constituent trade unions in attendance at the Congress. Allowing for such cases, members of about 260 trade unions attended as delegates this year out of about 1,106 unions in existence. The membership represented comprised about three-fourths of the total membership of all trade unions, and showed an increase of 8·3 per cent. compared with the last Congress. This increase occurred chiefly in the membership of unions of general labourers, of railwaymen, and of workpeople in the clothing and engineering trades. There was also an increase in the building group, but this was due to the representation of a larger number of unions.

Among the principal subjects on which the Congress passed resolutions were: An improved scale of war pensions; a proposed international Labour and Socialist conference at Stockholm; joint action by all unions to secure an increase in wages; extension of the

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Trade Boards Act; reduction of working hours in all trades to 48 per week; the conscription of wealth; the machinery required in connection with the demobilisation of the army and of munitions labour, and the reinstatement of the men in their old employment; reorganisation of unemployment insurance; the practices employed by enemy submarine commanders; increased separation allowances, and increased pay to soldiers and sailors; free trade; the metric system; Government control over food supplies and prices; the Russian Revolution; compulsory military service; the Defence of the Realm Acts; the administration of the Liquor Control Board; educational reform; electoral reform; housing reform; enlargement of the powers of the Ministry of Labour; national ownership and control of land; the lowering of the income tax exemption level; and the nationalisation of canals and waterways.

Year.	Town.	Number of Delegates Present.	Number of Trade Unions Represented	Number of Members in Trade Unions Represented	Income of the Congress and Parliamentary Committee.
					£
1896	Edinburgh.....	350	145	1,028,104	1,572
1897	Birmingham	381	149	1,093,191	1,497
1898	Bristol.....	406	159	1,176,896	1,929
1899	Plymouth	385	147	1,120,164	2,061
1900	Huddersfield	386	140	1,225,133	1,571
1901	Swansea.....	409	140	1,195,469	1,947
1902	London	487	163	1,363,292	2,011
1903	Leicester	456	162	1,300,732	2,716
1904	Leeds.....	453	159	1,320,432	2,692
1905	Hanley	458	154	1,469,514	2,814
1906	Liverpool	489	165	1,484,101	3,035
1907	Bath	521	173	1,627,958	3,298
1908	Nottingham.....	519	163	1,712,031	3,379
1909	Ipswich.....	497	133	1,651,289	3,329
1910	Sheffield.....	496	136	1,639,853	3,030
1911	Newcastle.....	520	127	1,645,507	6,928
1912	Newport	494	127	1,987,354	5,290
1913	Manchester.....	551	135	2,217,836	3,692
1914	(No Congress)	542	190	2,866,077	4,083
1915	Bristol.....	607	192	2,677,357	1,409
1916	Birmingham.....	670	170	2,833,839	5,381
1917	Blackpool	692	174	3,068,992	—



Imprisonment for Debt.—A great decline has taken place in the number of debtors sent to prison for non-compliance with County Court orders. The number in 1916 was only 1,068, or under one-tenth of the number in 1906. In 1908, 9,141 debtors were committed to prison. In 1910 this total was down to 8,198, and continued to drop until in 1913 it was 5,711. In 1914 it was 3,887, which figure was more than halved the next year.

STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS.

THE eternal struggle which labour is compelled to carry on with the elementary object of gaining a decent standard of living, or of maintaining its footing, is revealed by the endless chain of strikes and lock-outs denoted by the Board of Trade figures, although disputes involving less than ten workpeople, and those lasting less than one day, are not taken into account. In the period 1899-1913 the disputes totalled 9,261; the number of workpeople directly involved, 4,337,081; directly and indirectly involved, 5,693,528; while the aggregate number of working days lost (counting one day for one person) amounted to 111,142,700, or 304,500 years.

Year.	Total Strikes and Lock-outs.	Number of Workpeople Directly Involved in Disputes.	Number of Workpeople Directly and Indirectly Involved in Disputes.	Aggregate Duration in Working Days of all Disputes in Progress in each Year.
1899.....	719	138,058	180,217	2,516,416
1900.....	648	135,145	188,538	3,152,694
1901.....	642	111,437	179,546	4,142,287
1902.....	442	116,824	256,667	3,479,255
1903.....	387	93,515	116,901	2,338,668
1904.....	355	56,380	87,208	1,484,220
1905.....	358	67,653	93,503	2,470,189
1906.....	486	157,872	217,773	3,028,816
1907.....	601	100,728	147,498	2,162,151
1908.....	399	223,969	295,507	10,834,189
1909.....	436	170,258	300,819	2,773,986
1910.....	531	385,085	515,165	9,894,831
1911.....	903	831,104	961,989	10,319,591
1912.....	857	*1,233,016	*1,463,281	*40,914,675
1913.....	1,497	516,037	†688,925	†11,630,732

* The abnormal figures are due to the national coal dispute, which involved a million workpeople and accounted for an aggregate loss of 30,800,000 working days.

† Including the figures for the general dispute in Dublin, which involved 20,000 workpeople and accounted for an aggregate duration of 1,700,000 working days.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS.

In the two Board of Trade tables given on next page the second helps to counteract the impression produced by the first. The first table shows that in one single year only (1913) did the percentage of disputes ending in favour of the workpeople exceed the percentage of disputes ending in favour of employers. The second table, which gives the percentage of workpeople (directly involved) who completely gained or completely lost the object of the dispute, shows that in the disputes of six separate years the full beneficiaries were in the majority over those who failed to gain anything, and in one year (1912) they constituted no less than 74½ per cent. of the total number involved; while, as regards the percentage of workpeople partially successful, the second table shows that in no less than in eleven years out of fifteen this percentage exceeds that of the disputes which were partly successful or compromised, and thus makes a better impression. In both tables, moreover, the percentages expressive of complete success and the percentages of partial success and compromise tend to affect each other, the figures in the record table for 1911 and 1912

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forming a striking illustration—84·1 per cent. of workpeople directly involved achieving partial success or being saved from complete failure, despite the fact that only 6·6 per cent. completely attained their object; while, in 1912, 74½ per cent. were completely successful, whilst the number who were only half so amounted to no more than 11·1 per cent. As the percentage of workpeople involved in wage struggles exceeds the proportion involved in disputes due to all other causes, the 11 per cent. gain in wages by 1913 may be said to form the pecuniary register of the gross successes achieved. Why the gain has been no more, the proportion of unsuccessful struggles denotes.

ANALYSIS BY RESULTS, 1899–1913.

[Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Board of Trade on Strikes and Lock-outs.]

(a) PERCENTAGE OF NUMBER OF DISPUTES.

Year in which Disputes began.	In favour of Workpeople.	In favour of Employers.	Compromised or Partially Successful.	Indefinite or Unsettled.	Total.
1899	32·0	34·8	32·8	0·4	100·0
1900	31·2	33·6	34·4	0·8	100·0
1901	25·4	44·2	30·1	0·3	100·0
1902	24·4	46·6	28·3	0·7	100·0
1903	23·2	47·8	28·7	0·3	100·0
1904	17·5	50·7	31·5	0·3	100·0
1905	19·6	46·9	33·2	0·3	100·0
1906	31·5	37·0	31·1	0·4	100·0
1907	32·1	41·1	26·8	—	100·0
1908	20·1	43·6	36·3	—	100·0
1909	18·1	46·3	35·6	—	100·0
1910	25·4	36·9	37·5	0·2	100·0
1911	25·1	31·8	43·1	—	100·0
1912	27·4	30·4	42·2	—	100·0
1913	28·6	25·5	45·9	—	100·0

(b) PERCENTAGE OF NUMBER OF WORKPEOPLE DIRECTLY INVOLVED.

Year in which Disputes began.	In favour of Workpeople.	In favour of Employers.	Compromised or Partially Successful.	Indefinite or Unsettled.	Total.
1899	26·7	44·1	29·1	0·1	100·0
1900	30·1	27·5	41·9	0·5	100·0
1901	27·5	34·7	37·3	0·5	100·0
1902	31·8	31·8	36·1	0·3	100·0
1903	31·2	48·1	20·7	0·0	100·0
1904	27·3	41·7	30·9	0·1	100·0
1905	24·7	34·0	41·2	0·1	100·0
1906	42·5	24·5	33·0	0·0	100·0
1907	32·7	27·3	40·0	—	100·0
1908	8·7	25·7	65·6	—	100·0
1909	11·2	22·3	66·5	—	100·0
1910	16·3	13·8	69·7	0·2	100·0
1911	6·6	9·3	84·1	—	100·0
1912	74·5	14·4	11·1	—	100·0
1913	31·4	21·0	47·6	—	100·0

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THE CAUSES OF DISPUTES.

The tabulation of disputes in regard to their characteristics shows to what extent the proportion of workpeople involved in wage disputes preponderates. In eleven years out of the fifteen this proportion exceeded that involved in disputes from other causes. Disputes with regard to trade unionism pure and simple come next in importance, and those about working arrangements third. In the list of five causes disputes with regard to hours of labour take the last place.

PERCENTAGE PROPORTION OF WORKPEOPLE DIRECTLY INVOLVED IN DISPUTES FROM VARIOUS CAUSES.

Year.	Wages.	Hours of Labour.	Employment of Particular Classes of Persons.	Working Arrangements.	Trade Unionism.	Other.	Total.
1899	68·6	2·8	5·9	13·0	3·7	6·0	100·0
1900	61·4	0·5	7·7	14·0	14·5	1·9	100·0
1901	52·8	3·8	9·4	20·8	10·4	2·8	100·0
1902	48·6	2·6	9·8	17·0	21·8	0·2	100·0
1903	53·0	4·4	8·4	14·5	18·8	0·9	100·0
1904	58·1	3·5	10·8	13·5	14·1	0·0	100·0
1905	57·2	4·6	9·5	8·2	13·9	6·6	100·0
1906	55·7	4·5	3·0	4·1	32·2	0·5	100·0
1907	55·7	2·1	13·6	11·7	16·3	0·6	100·0
1908	78·5	3·7	4·9	5·6	5·5	1·8	100·0
1909	24·7	51·3	7·9	5·2	7·6	3·3	100·0
1910	19·9	23·9	29·8	16·1	8·5	1·8	100·0
1911	46·1	1·6	3·9	8·2	39·4	0·8	100·0
1912	*82·8	0·7	2·8	3·4	9·8	0·5	100·0
1913	54·9	2·7	10·4	3·9	23·3	4·8	100·0

* This abnormal figure was due to the national coal dispute, which arose on a demand for an individual district minimum wage for underground workers.

THE METHODS OF SETTLEMENT.

As the following table shows, the direct settlement of strikes and lock-outs between the two contending parties is the general method. At the same time the increasing numbers of workpeople dealt with by conciliation, mediation, and arbitration is patent. The striking combination of a small number of conciliation settlements with a large number of workpeople affected in the latter years is also a feature, while the settlement of a dispute involving 850,000 workpeople stands forth an isolated monument of legislation.

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METHODS OF SETTLEMENT OF STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS, 1899-1913.

[Extracted from the Annual Reports of the Board of Trade on Strikes and Lock-outs.]

Year in which Disputes began.	Disputes Settled by—								Total.
	Direct Arrangement or Negotiation between the Parties or their Representatives.	Arbitration.	Conciliation or Mediation.	Legislation.	Return to Work on Employers' Terms without Negotiation.	Replacement of Work-people.	Closing of Works.	Otherwise (including Indefinite or Unsettled).	
1899..	564	16	22	—	22	91	3	1	719
1900..	487	19	14	—	46	74	4	4	648
1901..	456	25	18	—	45	92	5	1	642
1902..	319	16	13	—	40	50	3	1	442
1903..	270	18	8	—	36	50	5	—	387
1904..	227	15	12	—	27	67	6	1	355
1905..	220	9	22	—	47	53	3	4	358
1906..	340	17	23	—	39	60	3	4	486
1907..	395	14	31	—	70	84	6	1	601
1908..	251	24	33	—	40	43	7	1	399
1909..	271	28	37	—	51	41	8	—	436
1910..	359	26	34	—	68	41	2	1	531
1911..	653	21	85	—	72	66	6	—	903
1912..	633	22	68	*1	71	56	3	3	857
1913..	1,153	24	127	—	119	68	4	2	1,497

(a) NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS BEGINNING IN EACH YEAR.

(b) NUMBER OF WORKPEOPLE DIRECTLY INVOLVED IN ABOVE STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS.

1899..	120,354	2,309	5,835	—	5,198	3,685	75	602	138,058
1900..	111,404	4,062	4,769	—	6,942	4,077	220	3,671	135,145
1901..	85,087	7,609	7,851	—	4,492	4,765	1,093	540	111,437
1902..	98,270	2,418	2,641	—	9,310	3,928	228	29	116,824
1903..	64,459	18,047	1,401	—	6,989	2,378	241	—	93,515
1904..	43,589	1,832	3,179	—	4,495	2,587	672	26	56,380
1905..	48,155	2,224	8,752	—	5,550	2,126	714	132	67,653
1906..	129,614	4,611	3,674	—	17,293	2,497	128	55	157,872
1907..	74,160	2,115	11,337	—	8,980	3,325	461	350	100,728
1908..	55,967	7,675	150,166	—	7,338	2,057	647	119	223,969
1909..	75,794	19,773	59,986	—	11,603	1,645	1,457	—	170,258
1910..	191,718	8,939	163,549	—	18,556	1,431	129	763	385,085
1911..	283,763	13,705	514,260	—	15,919	2,853	604	—	831,104
1912..	286,438	13,046	59,462	*850,000	22,257	1,583	157	73	1,233,016
1913..	376,884	15,232	97,288	—	23,108	3,241	213	71	516,037

* This relates to the national coal dispute, which was settled by the passing of the Coal Mines (Minimum Wage) Act, 1912.

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Shorter Hours and Output.—The Health of Munition Workers' Committee have followed their first report, issued January, 1916, with a further memorandum on the subject of weekly hours of employment. Investigations have been made by Dr. Vernon and Professor Loveday. The Committee observe that the results show that a reduction in the weekly hours of actual work, varying from 7 to 20, in no case resulted in more than an insignificant diminution of total output, while on the average it produced a substantial increase. The Committee assert that there can be little doubt that there is an increasing recognition on the part of both employers and workers of the broad fact which emerges from the investigations of the doctors, namely, that substantial reduction of hours can be effected without any reduction of output.

WAR FINANCE.

THE war finance of the United Kingdom (using war finance to include the public finance of the war-time) may be studied conveniently as regards the facts from four points of view. We may assemble the facts in order successively around: (1) Votes of credit, (2) the cost of the war, (3) the state of the National Debt, and (4) the taxation imposed to meet a portion of the great expenditure incurred. As for (1) and (2) it is necessary to observe that (2) is necessarily greater than (1), because votes of credit are required to meet engagements made beyond the revenue reaching the Treasury from taxation. All four aspects together will show how serious a financial burden the kingdom has undertaken.

Up to the prorogation of Parliament on August 21st, 1917, the following votes of credit had been passed by the Commons to enable the Government to prosecute the war. To that date some 19 such votes had been passed. From August, 1914, to March, 1915, three for £362 millions; for 1915-16, to March, £1,420 millions, in six votes; then, in 1916-17, seven votes amounting to £2,010 millions; and since then, or rather for 1917-18, the following votes of credit have been granted, viz., February 12th, £350 millions; May 9th, £500 millions; and July 17th, £650 millions. So, from August, 1914, to August, 1917, votes of credit have been granted by the Commons to the huge amount of

£5,292 MILLIONS.

It is most probable that before this article can be used by the reader, another such vote or two will have been submitted to the Commons. It is important to remember that votes of credit are used as authority to raise money required beyond the yield of the taxes.

To assist in estimating both the cost of the war and the state of our National Debt, the following table of total revenue and expenditure should be studied:—

	REVENUE.	EXPENDITURE.		
	£	£		£
1912-13.....	188,801,000	188,621,000	+	180,000
1913-14.....	198,242,000	197,492,000	+	750,000
1914-15.....	226,694,000	560,473,000	-	333,799,000
1915-16.....	336,766,000	1,559,158,000	-	1,222,392,000
1916-17.....	573,428,000	2,198,112,000	-	1,624,684,000
1917-18 (estimated)....	638,600,000	2,290,381,000	-	1,651,781,000

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Deductions only, more or less accurate, can we draw respecting the cost of the war by the aid of this table. It is plain that that cost began in the year 1914-15, the year in which a deficit of nearly £334 millions is shown. If, now, we seek the cost of the war, of which only a rough estimate can be made, we shall by taking all revenue above the level of 1913-14, the last complete year without war, find that to March, 1917, we raised £542,162,000 more revenue than the level of 1913-14. The votes of credit to August, 1917, we have seen to have amounted to £5,292 millions, and the war seems to have cost to that date that sum and the £542 millions extra revenue, or at least £5,834 millions. (By March, 1918, the end of the financial year, it is obvious from the foregoing table that it is estimated that the war will have cost from £500 millions to £850 millions more, or a total, say, of £6,500 millions.) On both sides of that calculation, when a final account shall be given, many adjustments will be required; but two, one on either side, must be referred to now. In the £542 millions of extra revenue raised during war to March, 1917, the normal cost of Army and Navy before war has not been included; and, on the other hand,

IN THE £5,292 MILLIONS,

the total of the votes of credit to date, are included charges other than our own outlay on war, especially advances to Allies and Dominions, which, to the end of July, 1917, were about £1,025 millions to Allies, and £146 millions to the Dominions. Beside that, out of the War Credit Fund are paid the amount of the purchases of sugar and other commodities which the Government finances during war, amounts which should be repaid out of sales. But, for the present, the United Kingdom is responsible for some such sum as the gross amount just given—for the war; only the future will tell how much of this loan money will be repaid.

The preceding table may be used also to show the effect of this huge outlay on our National Debt. Before the war, down to the very day of the declaration apparently, we were amortising the old Debt, and were spending less than the revenue. Since then, every year has shown a growing deficiency as war operations have expanded. There was also the Debt as it stood in 1914—£651 millions. The three deficits of 1914-17, as shown in the foregoing table, amount to £3,180,800,000; and these last two sums would give a debt at March, 1917, of £3,831 millions. (It was given as £3,854 millions by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in his Budget, but it is difficult to follow his figures.) As our table anticipates a deficit in 1917-18 amounting to £1,651·7 millions, should the war continue, in March, 1918, the National Debt will have reached £4,832·5 millions at least; and

it is probable that this estimate of war expenditure will be exceeded, which might leave the Debt larger still. Again, it is necessary to remind the reader that the total given for Debt includes our liabilities on account of

ALLIES AND DOMINIONS,

and other sums met in the financing of this war. But it is also necessary to face the probability that some of those loans to Allies will not be repaid, for war will have quite exhausted some of the countries concerned. Another qualification of the above statement arises from the fact that no allowance has been made for reduction of the Debt during the war, though that has been little except by way of annuities due; the continued repayment of debt while incurring new debt would have been a vain proceeding. So the greater part of the Sinking Fund is suspended during the war, provision being made for little beyond interest on the sum due. Temporarily, a few millions more is got thus, by the suspension of the Sinking Fund, to finance the war expenditure.

Under (4), which deals with taxation for war, it will also be found desirable to refer to other measures taken to provide the means of carrying the war forward. First of all, it is well to be clear about the relation of the votes of credit granted by Parliament and any such means of "raising the wind." The votes of credit are a mere authorisation to spend so much; bills have then to be passed to do certain things to get the money or credit, just as every year a Consolidated Fund Bill is required to authorise the Treasury to raise a certain amount on the market, generally an amount voted by Parliament for certain services. Besides taxation, three principal ways have been used to raise money for war.

TREASURY BILLS, LOANS, AND CERTIFICATES

for smaller amounts, all, in short, forms of loans, but the so-called "loans" being for long periods. The Treasury Bills are an everyday method of raising money for short periods of time; they are issued frequently every year, chiefly in anticipation of the payment of the revenue, and are paid off when the revenue is received. But during the war the use of Exchequer or Treasury Bills has been expanded very greatly, bills being renewed from time to time, so that, for instance, £822 millions of Treasury Bills were outstanding on August 25th, 1917. Just before the House rose on August 21st, the Commons voted a Bill to raise another loan, and no doubt that loan will be used to displace this great block of Treasury Bills. The loans for long periods placed on the market during the war have been of several kinds, viz., War Loans, carrying interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$, 4, $4\frac{1}{2}$, and 5 per cent., but really paying higher interest owing to the

price at which they were issued; 5 per cent. and 6 per cent. Exchequer Bonds; War Certificates to meet the case of smaller investors; and debt was created also in other ways. Acting so, the power given by votes of credit and War Loan Acts were used to raise sums to March, 1917, amounting to £2,342,706,000. It should be observed that, while giving such a sum as that as raised, this paragraph is dealing, not with the amount of our debt, which has been estimated already, but with methods adopted to raise money on the market. Nor, again, is there any discussion attempted here of those methods and their terms; it must suffice to say that in comparison the methods have proved effective, and the public have subscribed sums so large as to be incomparable.

Of taxation during this war-time, details should be sought under customs, excise, income tax,

AND EXCESS PROFITS DUTY,

but a few words must be said in summary before attention is drawn to the policy embodied in the taxes laid. To decide what taxes to impose, and to what extent the people should be taxed when a war was raging, and expenditure as a flood reaching to over £2,200 millions a year, was no mean task, and the decision, plainly, was critical. In result we have seen very heavy taxes imposed by raising the taxes on tea, sugar, coffee, cocoa, chicory, dried fruits, on beer and tobacco (no increase in the duty on spirits has been imposed during the war—a tale which will be told in full some day, it is to be hoped). We have seen new duties laid on motor spirit, imported motor-cars, musical instruments, clocks and watches, and cinematograph films; and duty placed on the price of tickets for entertainments. Then the income tax has been made much heavier, being increased from 1s. 3d. in the £, at which rate it was when war broke out, to 5s. in the £, being distinguished, it is true, into earned and unearned, and the rate of charge graduated according to the amount of the income. The super-income tax, too, has been graduated, and is now charged on incomes above £2,500 at rates from 10d. to 3s. 6d. in the £. So now incomes *above* £10,000 pay 8s. 6d. in the £ in income and super-income tax. The excess profits duty was imposed in 1915 at 50 per cent. on all business profits, but not on income from agriculture nor from professions, and it has since been advanced to 60 per cent., and now, in 1917-18, to 80 per cent. of the profits made above the 1914 (August) level. That is a very brief account of the changes in taxation made during the war, each change almost deserving a long notice. The most remarkable thing about these changes is their outstanding character, which is such that, after the war, we ought to hear little or nothing about taxes on commodities

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being necessary for revenue. The Budget for 1909-10 raised an expensive opposition to the

LAND VALUE DUTIES CHIEFLY,

which, to-day, are raising but a few hundred thousands in revenue, and it was alleged, moreover, that it was impossible to raise revenue in that direct way without destroying property. That is one chief reason why attention to the character of taxation during war should be paid carefully. Larger sums than any revenue known before in the United Kingdom had to be raised, and, whatever else is doubtful, it may be said that revenue has been secured, and, apparently, with comparative ease. But how? Here are facts which show how the war-taxation has changed and acts—bears upon individual payers. In 1913-14, the complete year before war, the total revenue was £198 millions, of which £163 millions came from taxes. Of that tax-revenue £75 millions were drawn from customs and excise, *i.e.*, from taxes on articles of consumption chiefly. Now, in 1917-18, the taxes are so laid that the total revenue expected is £638'6 millions, of which £569'7 millions should come from taxes, of which, in turn, £105'7 millions are expected from customs and excise. Those figures may be expressed as follows:—In 1913-14, before the war, our revenue was raised 46 per cent. from indirect (commodities) and 54 per cent. from direct taxes; and in 1917-18 the revenue is being raised, a revenue three-and-a-half times as large, by 18½ per cent. of indirect and 81½ per cent. of direct taxation. That great change has been brought about during war, and should be regarded as having been

NECESSITATED BY WAR.

It would have been impossible to raise large amounts of the £400 millions more revenue required by means of taxes paid in the price of commodities without raising such a protest as would have interfered with the prosecution of the war. The case of drink is in point. The excise on drink has been reduced seriously during war, owing chiefly, no doubt, to the restrictions laid on the sale; but it would not do to depend on a source of revenue requiring such a treatment during war. Two things may be added on this matter: the shifting of the proportions of direct and indirect taxation makes the revenue system more just, for it was a resort in time of need to quarters where wealth was held; and, after war, it should not be heard again that it is impossible to raise money for public purposes by direct taxation—that suggestion the war has proved to be the veriest excuse. How this bears upon our commercial policy should not be forgotten, too. Working men, on the other hand, who complain that they, in some cases, now pay income tax, should reflect until they see that a direct system is both fairer and cheaper than an indirect.

The People's Year Book.

Questions of a delicate financial nature were raised during the financing of the war, and reference can be made here to two only, which arise directly out of the brief story of a big question which has been told. One question was: How much of the cost of war should be raised during the war? Mr. Bonar Law, during 1917, said that over 26 per cent. of the cost has been raised by taxation. How much of that cost should be left, if any, to "posterity" is a matter of keen controversy, and no attempt to discuss it is made here. The other question raised by these financial measures is the inflating effect of the whole. Of the whole, it may be repeated, for it is obvious that that inflated effect does not result from particular measures taken only. The issue of

CURRENCY NOTES FOR INSTANCE,

£158 millions of which were outstanding on August 22nd, 1917, whereas only £28 millions of gold was held at the bank on account of them, no doubt was a contributory to the inflation from which all our finance, prices, and so forth, suffer. But our expression of values in higher figures is, the whole of it, an index of the general inflation. Credit has been expanded on the largest scale, while commodities and all material of value have been getting scarcer, the result, notwithstanding a better distribution of wealth by wages in some quarters, being a huge inflation of all values, which will have to be watched carefully, and especially when conditions which have led to this give way to healthier conditions of peace among the nations. It is, however, from this point of view, a matter for satisfaction that the successive Administrations which have ruled during war have not attempted to crowd taxes on commodities, which would have tended to increase the great inflation to be witnessed in our values now.



THE COST OF THE WAR.

According to the report of the Select Committee on National Expenditure the gross cost of the war up to September 30th, 1917 (that is, the additional gross expenditure incurred over normal peace expenditure), closely approximated to £5,000,000,000, of which sum £1,321,000,000 will be owing by our Allies or by the Dominions or India. £3,000,000,000 has been added to the National Debt, and the rate of increase tends to acceleration. Apart from this acceleration, it is estimated that each six months of war will signify a gross addition of £1,000,000,000 to the National Debt, and a gross addition to the National Debt charge of £60,000,000 per annum. It may be stated that the total Votes of Credit for 1917 amounted to £2,450,000,000.

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CUSTOMS CHARGES.

THE Customs are the oldest branch of the revenue of the United Kingdom, and are the customary charges levied on certain imported goods. Nowadays, however, there is nothing customary about these charges, and, though the old name is maintained, each charge is founded on a Parliamentary Act to that effect.

The sum paid into the Exchequer from this source was, in 1914-15, £39,150,492; in 1915-16, £59,575,610; in 1916-17, £70,561,000; and in 1917-18 it is estimated that Customs should yield £70,750,000. The vast increase shown in the last three years was owing to war taxation; in the year ended March, 1913, Customs yielded only £33,485,000.

How these large sums are raised may be shown by the goods—imported goods—which are now subject to “customary” duties. It would be confusing to give an enumeration of all the articles charged with Customs duties, so that it must suffice to indicate the chief contributors to this section of the revenue. These details are available only to the year 1915-16 (March), but they will serve to show

how this revenue is raised, and also how war is influencing it.

The “other articles” include playing-cards, chloroform, and a few more articles of small consequence. This is not the place to discuss this sort of taxation, but for other articles so taxed see “Excise Charges.” Imported beer is of no financial importance, but it is of interest to note how the consumption of foreign spirits grew while wine declined in yield, though spirits were more heavily charged, but wine was not in the meantime.

CHIEF TOPICAL INTEREST.

The chief topical interest in these matters is to trace the way in which Customs duties have been made to yield such largely increased revenue—from £35,450,000 in 1914 to £70,561,000 in 1916-17, while the estimate for 1917-18 is £70,750,000—for we shall thus follow the financial war measures taken touching this kind of revenue. Here, again, attention must be paid to the chief sources of this revenue chiefly, and it will be found that those chief sources are taxes on consumption—a fact of significance in taxation, not to refer to other ways.

	March, 1914.	March, 1916.
	£	£
Spirits (Foreign, &c.)—Rum, Brandy, and others...	4,435,500	5,323,780
Beer	31,643	23,172
Wine	1,152,291	1,077,870
Tea.....	6,498,816	13,962,210
Cocoa, &c.	341,489	698,197
Coffee and Chicory.....	220,352	354,708
Dried Fruit—Currants, Prunes, Raisins, &c.....	513,601	615,367
Sugar, &c.....	3,272,044	8,848,244
Tobacco and Cigars	18,263,479	25,743,149
Motor Spirit	—	1,760,965
Cinematograph Films	—	184,142
Motor-cars and Cycles	—	540,610
Clocks and Watches.....	—	243,572
Musical Instruments	—	74,007
Other Articles, &c.....	—	125,617
Total.....	£34,729,213	£59,575,610

The People's Year Book.

At the end of 1914 the tea duty was raised from 5d. to 8d. a lb., and in September, 1915, it was raised to 1s., a rate at which it remains to-day. In 1914 the beer duty on home-brewed beer (Excise) was raised from 7s. 9d. a barrel of 36 gallons to 25s., and at the same time foreign beer imported was charged at 25s. 6d. instead of at 8s. 3d. (There was, indeed, a remission also on the price of the licence.—See article on "Excise Charges.") Spirits, when war came, were charged 15s. 1d. or 15s. 2d. a gallon, and after May, 1915, 1s. was added, and 5d. more, instead of 1d. a gallon, on sweetened spirits.

Chicory, cocoa, and coffee were charged with 50 per cent. more in 1915, and in 1916-17 that raised duty was doubled, so that chicory went from 13s. 3d. to 19s. 10d., and again to £1. 19s. 8d. the cwt., at which the duty stands to-day. Cocoa went from 14s. to 21s., and then to 42s.; and coffee, likewise, from 14s. to 21s., and then to 42s. the cwt. Chicory and coffee, when roasted, are charged 6d. a lb., and cocoa 4½d. a lb. The wine duties were not altered. But the sugar duty was raised

FROM 1s. 10D. TO 9s. 4D.,

and then to 14s. a cwt., or 1½d. a lb. (The reader should compare such an item as this with the effect shown in the foregoing table. Not only so, but the sugar produced at home was only charged 7s. a cwt.—a very important discrimination introduced after 1910.)

The duty on dried fruits, such as currants (which themselves before the war were charged 2s.), were all now raised—currants, plums, &c., from 7s. to 10s. 6d. a cwt. The tobacco duty, the most prolific in revenue of the Customs duties, was first raised by 50 per cent., and now again another 50 per cent. added to that, Mr. Bonar Law having found it impracticable to maintain the doubling which he proposed in 1917. So that the duty on tobacco went from 3s. 8d. to

5s. 6d. in 1915 and 1916, and now becomes 7s. 4d. for unmanufactured tobacco, when unstripped, the cigars being more than 50 per cent. more still. (Reference is made to home-grown tobacco in the article on "Excise Charges.")

On motor spirit there was a duty of 3d. a gallon in 1915, but in September of the same year it was raised to 6d., but an allowance of one-half is made when the spirit is used for commercial and similar purposes. Cider or perry were made subject to 4d. a gallon in 1916-17.

OTHER DUTIES.

The remaining four duties were new impositions in September, 1915, and deserve special notice. Cinematograph films are charged at the rate of ¼d. to 5d. a foot according to their kind. Clocks, watches, and their parts, motor-cars and their accessories, and musical instruments when over 1s. in value are charged with 33½ per cent. They cannot be looked upon as money-getters of importance, though for prudential reasons they may have been justified, in addition to the ostensible reasons given, viz., to save freight room.

Regarding these changes again, comparing estimates for 1917-18 also, it is evident, on the one hand, that beer and wine are to be weaker agents for revenue, owing, no doubt, to restrictions of sale; and, on the other hand, that articles of large consumption—in particular, tea, sugar, and tobacco—are those which bring revenue in large sums. Tea estimated in 1917-18 to bring £14,000,000; sugar, £16,000,000; and tobacco, £33,900,000; that is, £63,900,000 out of the estimated total for Customs, £70,750,000.

It may be well to add that the Customs of the Isle of Man are separate from those of the United Kingdom, though much is collected in the United Kingdom on behalf of the island, which assimilates her Customs laws to those of the larger kingdom.

PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION.

PRODUCTION.

THE following Government figures show the increase or decrease of production of minerals, &c., in the United Kingdom during a period of fifteen years:—

	QUANTITIES.		VALUES.	
	1899.	1913.	1899.	1913.
	Tons.	Tons.	£	£
Coal	220,094,781	287,430,473	83,481,137	145,535,669
Iron Ore.....	14,461,330	15,997,328	3,895,485	4,543,558
Clay and Shale.....	15,064,857	13,859,821	1,542,657	1,778,071
Oil Shale	2,210,824	3,280,143	553,003	822,394
Salt	1,914,893	2,247,758	644,174	608,869
Slate	639,840	370,756	1,787,071	926,739
Limestone	12,302,890	12,740,664	1,335,067	1,369,168
Lead Ore.....	30,999	24,282	296,784	293,525
Tin Ore (Dressed)	6,392	8,355	440,509	960,134
Zinc Ore.....	23,135	17,294	139,482	69,502

Steel Ingots and Puddled Iron Bars.

[Compiled from Statistics published by the British Iron Trade Association.]

Year.	STEEL INGOTS.			PUDDLED IRON BARS.
	Bessemer Process.	Open-Hearth Process.	Total.	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	
1899	1,825,074	3,030,251	4,855,325	1,201,606
1909	1,733,220	4,148,408	5,881,628	1,129,412
1910	1,779,115	4,595,366	6,374,481	1,118,893
1911	1,461,140	5,000,472	6,461,612	1,191,499
1912	1,522,487	5,273,657	6,796,144	1,326,917
1913	1,600,701	6,063,175	7,663,876	1,206,745

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Shipbuilding—Royal Navy.

TONNAGE LAUNCHED.

[Extracted from returns furnished by the Admiralty.]

Year.	ROYAL DOCKYARDS.		PRIVATE YARDS.				UNITED KINGDOM.
	Chatham and Sheerness	Ports-mouth, Devonport, and Pembroke	Clyde.	North-East Coast of England.	Barrow and Liverpool	Other Districts.	
TONS DISPLACEMENT.							
1899	17,200	49,700	28,056	1,015	26,610	312	122,893
1909	1,872	45,350	14,425	8,122	28,180	3,025	100,974
1910	1,947	52,200	41,275	30,962	1,830	8,035	136,249
1911	6,640	52,880	76,935	27,110	37,670	26,888*	228,123
1912	1,582	53,440	52,397	31,681	31,564	2,288	172,952
1913	12,332	69,810	66,593	10,257	29,156	5,637	193,785

* Including a vessel of 22,500 tons displacement, launched in the Thames.

Shipbuilding—Merchant Service.*

TONNAGE LAUNCHED IN EACH DISTRICT.

[Compiled from the Annual Statements of the Navigation and Shipping of the United Kingdom issued by the Board of Trade.]

Year.	SHIPBUILDING DISTRICTS.					UNITED KINGDOM.
	Clyde.	North-East Coast of England (Tyne, Wear, and Tees).	Barrow and Liverpool.	Belfast.	Other Districts.	
TONS NET.						
1899.....	254,379	500,980	13,187	83,062	97,402	949,010
1909.....	230,745	267,301	18,090	72,896	42,503	631,535
1910.....	206,539	343,006	9,673	91,063	48,426	698,707
1911.....	336,742	586,012	15,722	107,581	65,563	1,111,620
1912.....	353,791	541,480	34,196	101,707	74,955	1,106,129
1913.....	417,190	621,289	28,687	76,542	88,213	1,231,921

* Including Mercantile and War Vessels built for foreigners, but exclusive of War Vessels built for His Majesty's Government.

In 1899 the total tonnage of merchant sailing vessels launched amounted to 50,483 tons net, and of merchant steam vessels launched to 898,527 tons. In 1913 the tonnage of new sailing vessels was 30,382 tons, and that of new steam vessels 1,201,539 tons. As regards the material of construction, it may be noted that steel was the material used in the construction of steam vessels covering 99 per cent. of the tonnage at both dates; while in the case of sailing vessels steel was the material used in the construction of 82 per cent. of the tonnage in 1913, as compared with 63 per cent. in 1899.

Agriculture.

The specific feature of agriculture up to the war period was the neglect of home resources, as shown by the trifling increase of 5,000 acres of wheat under culture during the course of fourteen years, by the diminution of the area under corn crops to the extent of 492,000 acres, by the diminution of the area devoted to green crops by 245,000 acres, by the reduction of the permanent pastures by 917,000 acres, and by the diminution of the total cultivated area by 1,031,000 acres. As regards live stock, it is sufficient to say that as against an increase of 729 000 cattle and 288,000 pigs there has been a reduction of sheep to the number of over three millions.

ACREAGE UNDER CROPS AND NUMBER OF LIVE STOCK IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (INCLUDING THE ISLE OF MAN AND THE CHANNEL ISLES).

DESCRIPTION OF CROPS AND LIVE STOCK.	1900.	1905.	1910.	1914.*
	THOUSANDS OF ACRES.			
Total Cultivated Area.....	47,795	47,673	46,932	46,764
Corn Crops—				
Wheat	1,901	1,837	1,858	1,906
Barley and Bere.....	2,172	1,872	1,899	1,873
Oats.....	4,146	4,137	4,116	3,899
Rye	65	72	57	67
Beans and Peas	424	432	441	471
Total.....	8,708	8,350	8,371	8,216
Green Crops—				
Potatoes	1,227	1,237	1,144	1,209
Turnips, Swedes, and Mangolds.....	2,478	2,357	2,368	2,278
Other Green Crops (except Clover and Grass)	596	550	519	569
Total.....	4,301	4,144	4,031	4,056
Other Crops—				
Grass, &c.....	416	450	434	436
Permanent Pasture (exclusive of heath or mountain land)	28,267	28,865	27,328	27,350
Live Stock—				
Horses used solely for agriculture, Mares kept for breeding, and unbroken Horses	2,000	2,117	2,033	1,851
Cattle	11,455	11,478	11,866	12,184
Sheep.....	31,055	29,077	30,480	27,961
Pigs	3,664	3,602	4,250	3,952

* Preliminary figures.

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FIGURES FOR 1917.

We are favoured by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries with the following return of the acreage under crops and grass and number of live stock in the United Kingdom, including the Isle of Man and Channel Islands, as returned on June 4th, 1917:—

	Acres.
Total Acreage under Crops and Grass (a).....	46,332,629
Arable Land	19,748,055
Permanent Grass	26,584,574
Wheat	2,106,236
Barley	1,798,514
Oats	4,786,596
Rye	69,573
Beans (e)	218,644
Peas	132,024
Potatoes	1,377,289
Turnips and Swedes	1,687,695
Mangolds	485,467
Cabbage, Kohl-Rabi, and Rape (g).....	152,186
Vetches or Tares (f)	93,442
Hops	16,946
Small Fruit (d).....	96,044
Clover, Sainfoin, and Grasses under Rotation	6,036,184
Other Crops	328,612
Bare Fallow.....	362,603
	Number.
Horses used for agricultural purposes (b)	1,326,977
Unbroken Horses (including Stallions) (c)—	
One year and above	376,838
Under one year	175,408
Total.....	<u>1,879,223</u>
Cows and Heifers in milk	4,012,990
Cows in calf, but not in milk.....	
Heifers in calf	500,759
Other Cattle—Two years and above.....	2,337,684
One year and under two.....	2,756,382
Under one year	2,771,164
Total of Cattle	<u>12,378,979</u>
Ewes kept for breeding	11,439,717
Other Sheep—One year and above.....	5,530,352
Under one year	10,880,183
Total of Sheep.....	<u>27,850,252</u>
Sows kept for breeding.....	374,305
Other Pigs.....	2,633,311
Total of Pigs.....	<u>3,007,616</u>

(a) Not including mountain and heath land.

(b) Including mares kept for breeding.

(c) Stallions above two years old used or intended to be used for service.

(d) Figures for Ireland include orchards.

(e) Figures for Scotland relate only to beans harvested as corn.

(f) Figures for Scotland include beans, mashlum, &c., for fodder.

(g) Kohl-Rabi is not separately distinguished in Scotland or Ireland.

THE WORLD'S CROPS.

According to the International Agricultural Institute the production of wheat in 1917 in the under-mentioned countries is as follows:—

WHEAT.

France.....	77,223,000	cwts., or	29·7	} per cent. below last year's production.
Luxemburg	209,000	„	10·4	
Norway.....	130,000	„	23·6	
Egypt.....	15,984,000	„	18·4	
Tunis.....	3,730,000	„	2·8	

In the following countries—Spain, France, United Kingdom, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, Canada, United States, India, Japan, Nigeria, Egypt, and Tunis, the total yield of wheat in 1917 is estimated at 1,000,874,000 cwts., or 1·2 per cent. below last year's production.

BARLEY.

The production of barley in 1917 in the following countries is estimated at 251,420,000 cwts., or 0·5 per cent. above last year's production: Spain, France, United Kingdom, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, Canada, the United States, Japan, Algeria, Egypt, and Tunis.

OATS.

The production of oats in 1917 in the following countries is estimated at 766,290,000 cwts., or 15·5 per cent. above last year's production: Spain, France, United Kingdom, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, Canada, the United States, Algeria, and Tunis.

MAIZE.

The production of maize in 1917 in Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Canada, and the United States is estimated at 1,655,851,000 cwts., or 22·7 per cent. above last year's production.

ESTIMATED PRODUCTION OF CROPS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1910-16.*

[Compiled from the Returns issued by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, by the Board of Agriculture for Scotland, and by the Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland.]

Year.	Principal Corn Crops.				Principal Green Crops.		Hay of all Sorts.	Hops.
	Wheat.	Barley and Bere.	Oats.	Beans and Peas.	Potatoes.	Turnips, Swedes, and Mangolds.		
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Cwts.
1910	56,593,433	63,044,497	175,794,317	12,758,533	6,347,966	41,138,682+	15,294,874	302,675
1911	64,313,452	57,803,217	162,933,333	11,447,109	7,520,168	30,885,112+	11,656,471	328,023
1912	57,402,302	58,207,198	164,800,633	11,708,539	5,726,342	34,199,623+	14,024,222	373,438
1913	56,696,400	65,632,528	165,282,232	10,988,352	7,604,804	34,589,947+	15,395,088	255,641
1914	62,500,920	64,530,968	165,491,712	11,952,992	7,476,457	33,718,714	12,403,480	507,258
1915	73,914,950	46,897,952†	178,467,160
1916	57,775,172	52,900,400†	170,670,256

* The figures given are exclusive of the produce of the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands.

† Inclusive of Irish beetroot.

‡ Barley only.

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HOME CONSUMPTION.

Coal and Pig Iron.

[Compiled from the Annual Reports on Mines and Quarries issued by the Home Office, and from the Annual Statements of Trade of the United Kingdom.]

Year.	Coal.	Pig Iron.	Year.	Coal.	Pig Iron.
	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.
1899.....	164,284,757	8,208,463	1907.....	182,642,686	8,272,702
1900.....	166,776,213	7,705,201	1908.....	176,222,659	7,827,510
1901.....	161,263,869	7,284,027	1909.....	177,737,306	8,500,888
1902.....	166,694,908	7,797,820	1910.....	179,891,350	8,978,145
1903.....	166,529,120	7,998,269	1911.....	184,810,517	8,498,062
1904.....	166,606,237	8,006,419	1912.....	174,573,433*	7,705,824*
1905.....	168,968,291	8,745,960	1913.....	189,092,369	9,352,748
1906.....	174,279,450	8,605,666			

* The quantity of both coal and pig iron available for use was reduced in 1912 on account of the National Coal Dispute in March and April of that year.

Wheat.

NOTE.—The figures are based on the *Agricultural Returns* of Great Britain and Ireland and the *Annual Statements of Trade*. Wheat flour is expressed in wheat on the assumption that 72 units of flour represent 100 of wheat. Exported biscuit and cake are allowed for on the assumption that 75 per cent. is flour. The allowance for seed in the case of British wheat is 2 bushels per acre.

Year.	Home-grown Wheat.	Imported Wheat and Flour.	Total.	Year.	Home-grown Wheat.	Imported Wheat and Flour.	Total.
	Million Bushels.	Million Bushels.	Million Bushels.		Million Bushels.	Million Bushels.	Million Bushels.
1899.....	66·5	181·3	247·8	1907.....	51·7	214·8	266·5
1900.....	57·0	182·5	239·5	1908.....	46·3	202·0	248·3
1901.....	47·8	187·2	235·0	1909.....	48·7	210·7	259·4
1902.....	49·7	201·0	250·7	1910.....	51·9	221·4	273·3
1903.....	50·1	217·5	267·6	1911.....	49·8	208·1	257·9
1904.....	39·2	220·0	259·2	1912.....	52·5	229·3	281·8
1905.....	38·3	212·3	250·6	1913.....	47·8	227·2	275·0
1906.....	53·7	209·2	262·9				

The Tendencies of Consumption.

The tendencies of consumption are illustrated by the Board of Trade figures, which show an increased consumption of cocoa, tea, sugar, and tobacco per head during the course of the century, as well as a lessened individual consumption of coffee, beer, and spirits.

Certain Dutiable Articles of Food and Drink and Tobacco.

[The figures for all the articles are compiled from the 61st Statistical Abstract of the United Kingdom issued by the Board of Trade.]

Year.	Raw Cocoa* and Preparations of Cocoa, &c.		Coffee.		Tea.		Currants and Raisins.	
	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Cwts.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Cwts.	Lbs.
1900 ..	44,746,469	1·09	260,425	0·71	249,751,032	6·07	1,359,851	3·70
1905 ..	56,651,442	1·32	257,612	0·67	258,776,914	6·02	1,760,067	4·59
1910 ..	68,955,633	1·54	260,669	0·65	286,891,970	6·39	1,862,490	4·64
1911 ..	72,792,512	1·61	250,252	0·62	293,301,900	6·47	1,978,039	4·89
1912 ..	78,871,205	1·73	249,879	0·61	295,223,303	6·46	1,901,151	4·66
1913 ..	78,273,825	1·70	250,890	0·61	305,489,732	6·64	1,969,036	4·79

Year.	Sugar.†		Beer (made in United Kingdom).		Spirits (Potable, Home-made, and Imported).		Tobacco (Manufactured and Unmanufactured).	
	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.	Total Amount.	Per head of Population.
	Cwts.	Lbs.	Standard Barrels.‡	Std. Gals.	Proof Gals.	Proof Gals.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1900 ..	31,427,156	85·53	36,076,841	31·56	45,889,051	1·12	80,084,923	1·95
1905 ..	28,567,758	74·44	33,250,654	27·85	39,331,928	0·92	84,824,693	1·97
1910 ..	33,464,075	83·45	32,830,073	26·31	29,265,998	0·65	89,974,690	2·00
1911 ..	37,230,158	92·05	34,246,675	27·22	30,687,105	0·68	93,085,400	2·05
1912 ..	33,493,061	82·15	33,913,219	26·74	30,526,801	0·67	93,435,602	2·05
1913 ..	38,826,785	94·48	34,915,687	27·31	31,792,916	0·69	95,976,011	2·08

* No deduction is made in years prior to 1912 for cocoa contained in chocolate, &c., manufactured in the United Kingdom and exported.

† Sugar has been subject to duty since April 19th, 1901.

‡ Calculated at a standard gravity of 1055°.

Meat.

QUANTITY of MEAT obtained from HOME SOURCES and from FOREIGN and COLONIAL SOURCES respectively, together with the percentage proportion obtained from these Sources and the estimated Consumption per Head of the Population of the United Kingdom.

[Furnished by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, and calculated on the basis of the returns collected by that Department and by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland in connection with the Census of Production Act, 1906.]

Year ended May 31st.	ESTIMATED TOTAL MEAT SUPPLY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.							
	Home Produce.*		Foreign and Colonial Produce.†		Total Supply.	Per Head of the Population.		
	Quantity.	Proportion to Total Supply.	Quantity.	Proportion to Total Supply.		Home Produce.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Supply.
	Thousand Cwts.	Per cent.	Thousand Cwts.	Per cent.	Thousand Cwts.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1901...	29,202	58·1	21,064	41·9	50,266	79·1	57·1	136·2
1905...	29,711	58·7	20,927	41·3	50,638	77·8	54·8	132·6
1910...	30,415	60·7	19,701	39·3	50,116	76·2	49·3	125·5
1911...	29,499	57·5	21,760	42·5	51,259	73·2	54·0	127·2
1912...	31,816	59·7	21,439	40·3	53,255	78·4	52·8	131·2
1913...	30,824	59·1	21,367	40·9	52,191	75·4	52·2	127·6

* Production less exports of British and Irish produce.

† Imports less re-exports.



THE INDUSTRIAL LABOUR MOVEMENT.

THE fact that trade unionism, which before the outbreak of war mustered, in round figures, four million workers, has more than doubled its strength and made more recruits in 13 or 14 years than in the whole century preceding, speaks volumes as to the accelerated progress achieved since the dawn of the century; while the trend of consolidation, revealed by the reduction in the unions from 1,310 in 1899 to 1,135 in 1913, is a fact of further significance; a still further fact being the growth of the General Federation of Trade Unions in the same period. Add to this, also, the factor of the Labour movement as an independent force in the political arena, and we have all the signs and tokens that industrial democracy has entered on a new phase, and that the trend of things is towards a unified force concentrating on the attainment of a civilised standard of life, and campaigning, therefore, on every field of vantage.

The People's Year Book.

To this the industrial labour movement is being impelled by the stern logic of events, amidst which the cost of living and the massing of capitalist forces stand out first and foremost. What the labour movement has to contend with on the industrial plane is indicated by the statistics of employers' associations, which in October, 1914, comprised 496 in the building trades, 40 in the mining and quarrying industries, 246 in the metal, engineering, and shipbuilding trades, 100 in the textile trades, 118 in the clothing trades, and 555 in the trades miscellaneous, all of which, together with three Parliamentary associations, made up a total of 1,555 for the United Kingdom, with all the financial resources of capitalism throughout the country at command, and with the House of Commons and House of Lords as its political strongholds for the time being.

Trade Unions.

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP.

[*Compiled from Returns supplied by the Trade Unions to the Department of Labour Statistics and to the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies.*]

ALL TRADE UNIONS,* 1899-1915.

Year.	Number at end of Year.	Membership at end of Year.	Year.	Number at end of Year.	Membership at end of Year.
1899.....	1,310	1,860,913	1908	1,218	2,388,727
1900.....	1,302	1,971,923	1909	1,199	2,369,067
1901.....	1,297	1,979,412	1910	1,195	2,446,342
1902.....	1,267	1,966,150	1911	1,204	3,018,903
1903.....	1,255	1,942,030	1912	1,149	3,287,884
1904.....	1,229	1,911,099	1913	1,135	3,987,115
1905.....	1,228	1,934,211	1914	—	3,918,809
1906.....	1,250	2,128,635	1915	1,106	4,126,793
1907.....	1,243	2,425,153			

* Exclusive of a few trade unions, generally unimportant, for which particulars are not available, and of a certain number of federations, employers' associations, and trade protection societies which are registered as trade unions.

THE FEMININE TRADE UNION MOVEMENT.

In 1899 the female membership of trade unions in the textile trades amounted to 111,870, and in the non-textile trades to 11,895 only; the total female trade union membership thus figuring at 123,765. The progress during the century is made manifest by comparing the preceding figures with those for recent years.

FEMALE MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS.

	1913.	1914.	1915.
Textile Trades	257,281	251,115	269,797
Non-textile Trades	99,682	104,977	131,122
Total.....	356,963	356,092	400,919

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STATISTICS OF REGISTERED TRADE UNIONS.

The following statement shows the number of trade unions upon the register at the end of each of the 10 years 1906-15, together with the membership of those furnishing returns:—

Year.	Number.	Membership.	Year.	Number.	Membership.
1906	674	1,719,031	1911.....	680	*2,378,957
1907	677	1,973,560	1912.....	683	*2,597,772
1908	662	1,971,238	1913.....	696	*3,264,669
1909	666	1,957,904	1914.....	690	*3,261,050
1910	669	2,017,656	1915.....	677	*3,438,642

* Deductions have been made on account of federations and branches. No deductions were made in previous years.

INCOME.

Below is the total income, the sources from which the income was derived, and the average contribution from each member, the average for 1914 being added for comparative purposes:—

Group.	Total Income.	Proportion of Total Income from			* Average Contribution per Week from each Member.	
		Members.	Board of Trade. †	Other Sources.	1914.	1915.
					d.	d.
	£	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	d.	d.
Engineering	1,618,232	92.2	1.8	6.0	11.7	12.0
Mining	819,924	90.1	0.1	9.8	4.9	5.0
Conveyance	614,302	91.3	0.5	8.2	3.7	3.7
Building	526,056	89.5	7.9	2.6	11.2	9.5
General	343,842	95.9	0.6	3.5	3.2	2.9
Textile	324,834	72.6	10.3	17.1	6.8	6.6
Printing	123,287	89.0	4.8	6.2	9.6	8.8
Dress.....	106,152	91.9	1.0	7.1	5.9	5.6
Wood.....	72,596	91.0	6.2	2.8	11.0	9.0
Enginemn	63,043	88.6	0.3	11.1	4.8	4.7
Commercial.....	62,747	92.8	0.8	6.4	4.2	3.7
Food	35,577	94.6	0.3	5.1	4.5	5.5
Government.....	27,872	95.9	—	4.1	2.4	2.0
Professional	21,547	94.6	0.5	4.9	5.7	4.6
Leather.....	12,717	81.6	1.1	17.3	4.6	5.0
Precious Metals.....	9,711	92.5	1.3	6.2	5.7	4.9
Agriculture	7,482	85.8	—	14.2	1.9	1.3
Chemicals	3,818	73.9	0.1	26.0	2.5	2.5
Brick.....	672	78.3	—	21.7	4.8	4.5
Total	4,794,411	90.2	2.6	7.2	6.2	6.0

* Based on the mean membership.

† From the Board of Trade in respect of unemployment insurance.

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FUNDS.

Total funds of registered trade unions at December 31st, 1915, together with the increase or decrease during the year 1915, and a comparison of the funds per member at December 31st, 1914, and December 31st, 1915:—

Group.	Funds, December 31st, 1915.	Increase or Decrease in Funds during 1915.	Increase or Decrease in Funds as a Proportion of Funds at December 31st, 1914.	Funds per Member.	
				December 31st, 1914.	December 31st, 1915.
	£	£	Per cent.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Engineering	3,185,918	+ 649,855	+ 25·6	4 13 9	5 4 5
Mining.....	1,408,957	+ 310,248	+ 28·2	1 11 4	2 2 6
Conveyance	1,244,655	+ 183,444	+ 17·3	1 11 0	1 14 5
Textile	1,059,291	+ 69,906	+ 7·1	6 4 11	6 4 10
Building.....	451,285	+ 136,612	+ 43·4	1 7 2	1 19 9
General	344,562	+ 96,682	+ 39·0	0 10 5	0 12 2
Dress	235,637	+ 27,643	+ 13·3	2 14 4	2 16 5
Printing	189,486	+ 24,626	+ 14·9	2 19 10	3 2 8
Enginemmen	128,981	+ 24,707	+ 23·7	1 18 4	2 7 5
Commercial	85,496	+ 10,106	+ 13·4	1 1 4	1 2 5
Wood.....	71,817	+ 16,655	+ 30·2	1 12 4	2 2 6
Food	52,020	+ 17,268	+ 49·7	1 4 2	1 17 4
Government	27,606	+ 1,359	+ 5·2	0 7 8	0 10 3
Professional	27,188	+ 4,659	+ 20·7	1 2 11	1 5 6
Leather	22,895	+ 3,536	+ 18·3	2 2 2	2 5 5
Precious Metals.....	22,390	+ 3,987	+ 21·7	2 16 5	2 3 4
Chemicals	17,784	+ 1,217	+ 7·3	3 7 7	3 3 3
Agriculture	16,930	+ 622	+ 3·8	0 14 7	0 14 3
Brick	2,969	— 313	— 9·5	5 11 10	5 18 1
Total	8,595,867	+1,582,819	+ 22·6	2 3 3	2 10 3

The fact that it cost the 100 principal trade unions in the period 1898-1912 an aggregate sum in excess of 32½ millions sterling in making provision against the vicissitudes of industrial life, and in maintaining their organisations, is sufficient to dispel the illusion of those who are apt to imagine that wages are all clear gain. A few pence per week may appear a matter of insignificance, but £23. 1s. 9½d., which represented the aggregate average amount per individual member in the period in question, can hardly be said to be a trifling affair. What it may cost to cope with emergencies may be seen from the expenditure of nearly £4,000,000 in 1912, the year of the national coal strike and other great disputes, when the expenditure in unemployed and dispute benefit alone amounted to 51·6 per cent., or over half the total outlay. How far £1. 18s. 2¾d. can be made to go is shown by the average amount expended per member for that year: Unemployed, &c., benefit, 5s. 11¾d.; dispute benefit, 13s. 9d.; sick and accident benefit, 4s. 4¾d.; superannuation benefit, 4s. 3d.; funeral benefit, 1s. 2¼d.; other benefits and grants, 1s. 7½d.; working and other expenses, 7s. 0½d. Total, £1. 18s. 2¾d.

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EXTENSION OF WOMEN WORKERS.

THE occupational census taken in 1911 gave the number of women workers as 4,830,734 (including domestic servants, professional women, &c.), these being aged ten years and upwards. There were 10,026,379 females of ten years of age and over without specified occupations, or unoccupied.

It will be seen from the undergoing table to what extent women were employed in 1914, domestic service not being included. From July, 1914, to July, 1917, there had been drawn into the various occupations 1,421,000 additional females, or 42·5 per cent. of the number previously employed in these occupations.

In the table below will be seen the extent of the expansion in groups of trade, and the extent to which women and girls are directly replacing men, according to returns made by the employers.

SUMMARY OF THE POSITION AS REGARDS THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

Occupation.	Estimated Number of Females employed, July, 1914.	Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in the Employment of Females since July, 1914.		Direct Replacement of Men by Women.	
		Numbers.	Percentage of those Employed in July, 1914.	Numbers.	Percentage of those Employed in July, 1914.
Industries	2,184,000	+ 518,000	+ 23·7	464,000	21·2
Government Establishments	2,000	+ 202,000	+ 9,596·7	191,000	9,120·0
Gas, Water, & Electricity (under Local Authorities)	600	+ 4,000	+ 635·3	4,000	600·0
Agriculture in Gt. Britain (Permanent Labour) ..	80,000	+ 23,000	+ 28·7	43,000	53·4
Transport (excluding Tramways under Local Authorities).....	17,000	+ 72,000	+ 422·0	74,000	437·8
Tramways (under Local Authorities).....	1,200	+ 16,000	+ 1,372·0	16,000	1,330·0
Finance and Banking ...	9,500	+ 54,000	+ 570·5	53,000	555·6
Commerce	496,000	+ 324,000	+ 65·4	328,000	66·0
Professions	67,500	+ 20,000	+ 30·2	21,000	31·2
Hotels, Public Houses, Cinemas, Theatres, &c.	176,000	+ 22,000	+ 12·5	38,000	21·4
Civil Service, Post Office.	60,500	+ 45,000	+ 74·3	51,000	84·3
Civil Service (other than Post Office)	4,500	+ 53,000	+ 1,178·0	48,000	1,067·0
Services under Local Authorities (other than Tramways)	196,200	+ 29,000	+ 14·6	23,000	11·8
Total	3,295,000	+ 1,382,000	+ 41·9	1,354,000	41·1
Agriculture in Gt. Britain (Casual Labour).....	50,000	+ 39,000	+ 77·0	38,000	75·5
Total (including Casual Labour in Agriculture)	3,345,000	+ 1,421,000	+ 42·5	1,392,000	41·6

If casual labourers in agriculture are excluded, in view of the seasonal nature of their work, the increase would be 1,382,000, or 41.9 per cent. of the pre-war numbers. This figure does not, however, represent the net increase in the number of women employed in all occupations, since domestic servants and women employed in very small workshops and workrooms in the dressmaking trade are excluded, as well as women at work in military, naval, and Red Cross hospitals. Under the last head there has been an increase in the numbers of women employed equal to 38,000 full-time workers. On the other hand, it is estimated that there has been a displacement of 400,000 women from small workshops and domestic service. Taking these figures together, the net result gives an increase of 1,059,000 women employed in occupations outside their own homes; but it must be borne in mind that a great part of the work previously done by domestic servants who have gone into other employment is now done by unpaid labour.



An analysis of 720,000 women workers drawn into industry during the war shows that 231,000 women and girls who were previously unoccupied, 173,000 who were domestic servants, 243,000 who came from other industries, including 93,000 from the clothing trades, and 73,000 from non-industrial occupations other than domestic service. These figures can, of course, only be taken as a rough indication of the change that has taken place, but they must be sufficiently near the truth to be of considerable interest.

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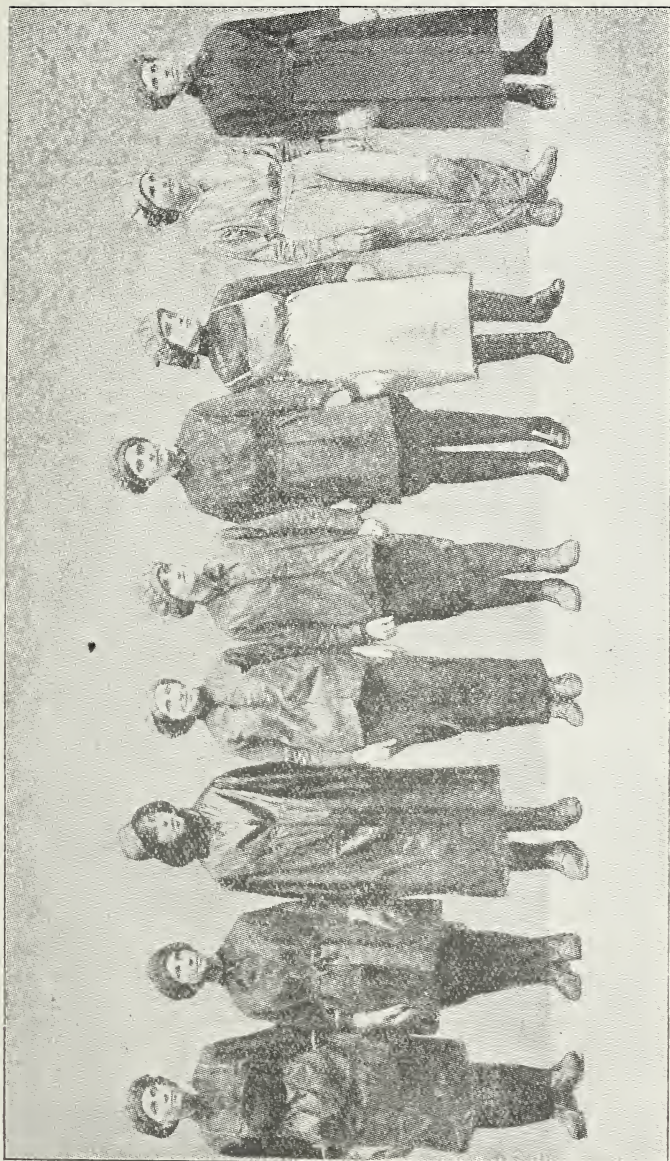
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TYPES OF PROTECTIVE CLOTHING FOR WOMEN AND GIRL WORKERS.

(Prepared by the Home Office from information supplied by H.M. Inspector of Factories.)
 A—The overall suit. B—Trousers with tunic. Other types protect from dust and dirt; C—Where there is exposure to acids or alkalis;
 D—Excessive wet; E—Machinery involving special risk; F—Excessive heat; G—Where the employment is in the open air.

WOMEN WORKERS NOW AND AFTER THE WAR.

BY ANNOT E. ROBINSON.

ALL this large army of new women workers are employed on work formerly done by men, and it is the discovery that women are doing men's work successfully which has so aroused public interest in the extended employment of women. The labour of women in the staple industries of this country is no new thing. Women were producers in the home before the factory system was set up.

The withdrawal of so many men from civil to military life and the ever-growing demands of the military machine have created many new openings for women in commerce, industry, and the professions, of which they have taken full advantage. The 1,392,000 women employed in direct replacement of men are found in munition and chemical works, or the railways and tramways, in banks, warehouses, and Government offices, and retail shops, agriculture and gardening, shipbuilding and dockyards, and in the Women's Corps of the Army and Navy.

I have not attempted to give anything approaching a complete list of the new employments of women. So many trades and occupations have been opened to them during the last three and a half years, and so many processes formerly believed to be beyond their capacity have been undertaken by them, that even to give a list would occupy more space than is at my disposal for the whole of this article.

It is remarkable that although the number of employed women has so increased there is as yet no scarcity of women labour. Indeed, the Women's Employment Exchanges have unemployed women on their books.

The sources of this substituted women labour are many and difficult to summarise. One trade union which has made an inquiry into the pre-war occupations of its women

members who are replacing men reports that they are drawn from 91 different occupations. Some 400,000 domestic servants have undertaken war work, while many middle-class women, who, under ordinary conditions, would not have sought employment, have from patriotic and economic reasons replaced men in the labour market.

Probably, the wives and widows of our soldiers and sailors contribute the largest number. The separation allowance is, under war conditions, inadequate for the maintenance of a home and family, as are also a great number of the pensions granted to disabled soldiers and sailors, who now number 1,000,000, and whose numbers are increasing by 15,000 weekly. The widows of deceased soldiers and sailors are also amongst those women whom the increased and increasing cost of living is compelling to work for wages outside the home.

When the war came upon us in 1914 the position of the woman wage-earner in this country was not satisfactory. She was badly paid; she was unorganised; she was not a citizen. The average wage for women was under 9s. weekly.

In industry there were two rates of pay—the man's and the woman's—and in certain occupations, such as teaching, it was possible to find a man and woman doing exactly the same work with the woman receiving a salary a third less than that of the man.

In the traditional women's trades the war has made little difference to the women's rates of pay. In the making-up trades in Manchester the power machinists have received no increase in rates, and only in some warehouses a small war bonus. During the war 4d. and 4½d. per hour have been fixed as the women's rates in confectionery and tailoring under the Trade Boards Act of 1909. The many women workers who have received no

bonus and no increase of pay during the last 3½ years are, of course, very much worse off than before the war.

The position of the substituted woman worker is, on the whole, better than that of her sister in the sewing trades, but it is not altogether satisfactory.

The outlook is best in those occupations where the dominating trade union has opened its ranks to the new women workers, as on the railways and tramways and in the postal service, where the women through the action of the N.U.R., the Tramwaymen's Association, and the Postmen's Federation are receiving rates approximate to those of the men they are replacing, and are, on the whole, looked upon by the men as comrades and not as possible blacklegs.

The Amalgamated Union of Co-operative Employés have adopted this policy also, and 76 co-operative societies now give equal pay and equal bonuses to men and women, while many others are giving approximate rates.

In occupations where conditions like these are obtaining the future can be faced without foreboding. The women are organised, they are not cheap labour, and the situation is well in hand before demobilisation and reconstruction have to be dealt with.

But in the munitions industry the Amalgamated Society of Engineers resolved, when under the Munitions Act they consented to dilution and the introduction of women labour, not to accept women as members of their trade union. A very great number of women, as every one knows, are employed in the production of munitions in the engineering establishments of the country; and the Federation of Women Workers, under the leadership of Miss MacArthur, has made a gallant attempt to organise them, and has met with varying success. The employers have found the women's labour acceptable, and many desire to retain it after the war. Those of the women who are employed on what are recognised as the jobs of men are receiving the male rate and

are making very good wages. But the great mass who are doing repetition work have had to be protected from sweating by various orders issued by the Ministry of Munitions, and are receiving remuneration much below that earned by the men whom they are replacing.

The outlook here is perplexing and is obviously not so well in hand as on the railways and tramways. The restoration of pre-war conditions under the Government pledges would mean that the women would be turned out of the industry and their skill lost to the country, while to retain them as cheap unorganised labour would tend to lower the male rates.

The experience of the war shows that the time is more than ripe for a general raising of the wages of women generally, while the only safe rule by which the wages of substituted female labour can be fixed is that of having the same rate for the job whether it is performed by a man or a woman.

The fear which the men's unions have shown of permitting women to enter the carefully-guarded trades is rooted in the belief that evil results to them will certainly follow upon the introduction of cheap female labour. This fear has ample justification by what has happened in the past. Although the hostility of large bodies of men to the introduction of women labour is at present not articulate, it still exists and may manifest itself in the period following the conclusion of hostilities. The fear of the men that the existence of a large reserve of semi-skilled underpaid women labour may result in the undercutting of their own rates will not be removed so long as matters rest where they are. A large number of the women are outside trade union organisations, and this, of course, makes the fear of the men still more urgent.

EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK.

Before the war, with very few exceptions, women were paid a lower rate than men even when the work done was of precisely similar character and of equal value, as in teaching. The reason given for this was that the

family was the unit, and not the individual, and so a man's wages were fixed at a higher rate than the woman's, because, in the ordinary process of things, the man founds a family and takes upon his shoulders the maintenance of a wife and children. The woman, on the other hand, has received an individual wage based on the implication that she has only herself to maintain. This accepted connection between the responsibility for the maintenance of a family and the amount of wages paid to a man or a woman has had fairly evil consequences. The real basis of wages should be the value of the work done, and an employer ought to pay what the work is worth to him whether the job is done by a man or a woman. Only where this is accepted will equal pay for equal work be generally paid.

It will be very difficult after the war to maintain the standard of living unless this improvement in the payment of women generally is achieved. The underpaid woman will reduce the wages of men, and the lowering of the wages of men will adversely affect the wife and the mother in the home.

In this connection the advisability of establishing some system for the endowment of motherhood and of childhood must be considered.

I suggest that the endowment of maternity and infancy would therefore be a wise step in the direction of guarding the child life of the nation; but I desire to discuss it rather from the standpoint of making the way clear for establishing the principle of one rate for one job amongst the wage-earners.

I think that until the principle of one rate for one job is established the danger of unfair competition between men and women cannot be removed. This competition has had evil results

in the past. Under the new conditions set up by or during the war it may have even more evil results in the future. The maintenance of the mother and child has not, more especially in the ranks of the more poorly-paid workers, been kept at a sufficiently high level even under the custom of a male rate and a female rate.

The probabilities are that after peace is declared there will be a marked increase in the number of women desiring employment as compared with 1914. The cost of living will not sink to the pre-war level for many years to come, and many of the factors which are driving women into the labour market will continue to operate at the cessation of hostilities.

It is clear from this hurried survey that the continued wide employment of women in what were known as men's trades will change the whole outlook upon women's labour. In the past women have been handicapped by low wages, lack of training, and exclusion from trade unions. In the future they must enjoy a higher standard of life and a fuller industrial equality with men. The skill and experience they have gained during war-time cannot be taken away from them, and will be of value to the country, which will require the best service of all citizens in the period of reconstruction. Such changes as this wide employment of women will bring about in the maintenance and care of the family must be faced with the same courage and boldness as the women have shown in substitution. What the nation has gained in the higher productivity of industry must not be lost, and in future the better trained and more highly-paid woman worker will prove to be the wiser mother and citizen.



The Largest Co-operative Societies.—The largest retail co-operative society in the United Kingdom is that of Leeds, which in 1916 had a membership of 64,847 and sales of £2,436,017. It is most nearly followed by St. Cuthbert's, Edinburgh, with 49,521 members and sales in 1916 of £2,053,347.

UNFAIR TAXATION.

LARGEST PERCENTAGE INCREASES ON LOW SALARIES.

IN these days of associations for drawing the attention of our M.P.'s and other officials to the many grievances and injustices which one thinks he is being made the victim of, it seems strange that no such association has been formed by the many income-tax payers of the lower stages, say up to a salary of £300 per annum.

From the comparative statements given on next page of the income-tax years 1914 and 1915, before the abatements were reduced, and the years 1916 and 1917, it will be seen that the income-tax payer in the first stages has been more heavily hit by the increases of taxation than those in the later stages, say up to £700 per annum.

This reduction in the abatement and the allowance for two children had the effect of the following increases:—

£200 per year taxed on	£30.	Increased percentage of Taxable Salary.....	15·0
£300	„	„	10·0
£400	„	„	7·5
£500	„	„	8·0
£600	„	Decreased percentage of Taxable Salary.....	5·0
£700	„	„	7·2

Hence persons receiving £600 to £700 per annum now pay on a less percentage of their salary as against those receiving up to £500, although the rate per £ has been increased by 3d. on the earned portion, this being 2s. 6d. in the £ for those persons receiving £600 to £1,000. But that does not remove the seeming injustice, as the following table will show the increased percentage of the tax paid:—

£200 per year,	200 per cent.,	as against	<i>nil.</i>
£300	„	192·5	„
£400	„	158·75	„
£500	„	154·03	„
£600	„	134·37	„
£700	„	130·16	„

These figures seem to prove that the smaller incomes are bearing a greater burden of the increased taxes than the larger, and where there is really less spare money to meet it.

INCOME-TAX ON WORKERS' WAGES.

On November 20th the Chancellor of the Exchequer said, in the House of Commons, that in the case of income-tax assessed quarterly upon weekly wage-earners employed by way of manual labour, the following estimates may be given for the year 1916-17:—

Gross Assessments	£202,000,000
Net Produce	£3,000,000
Number of Weekly Wage-earners with Incomes above the exemption limit	1,500,000
Number of Weekly Wage-earners liable to pay tax after deduction of the statutory abatements and allowances.....	630,000

COMPARATIVE LISTS OF SALARIES, USUAL ABATEMENTS, AND ALLOWANCES FOR TWO CHILDREN IN EACH CASE.

INCOME-TAX YEAR 1914 AND 1915.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Salaries.....	£ 200	£ 300	£ 400	£ 500	£ 600	£ 700
Abatement	160	160	160	150	120	70
For Children	40	140	240	350	480	630
	40	40	40	40	<i>Nil.</i>	<i>Nil.</i>
Taxable Amounts	<i>Nil.</i>	100	200	310	480	630
Percentage of Salary Taxable.....	<i>Nil.</i>	33 $\frac{1}{3}$	50.0	62.0	80.0	90.0
Earned Rate of Taxation.....	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Tax Paid.....	<i>Nil.</i>	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
	<i>Nil.</i>	5 0 0	10 0 0	15 10 0	24 0 0	31 10 0

INCOME TAX YEAR 1916 AND 1917.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Salaries.....	£ 200	£ 300	£ 400	£ 500	£ 600	£ 700
Abatement	120	120	120	100	100	70
For Children	80	180	280	400	500	630
	50	50	50	50	50	50
Taxable Amounts	30	130	230	350	450	580
Percentage of Salary Taxable.....	15.0	43.3	57.5	70.0	75.0	82.8
Earned Rate of Taxation.....	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Tax Paid.....	0 2 3	0 2 3	0 2 3	0 2 3	0 2 6	0 2 6
Increase Paid over 1914 and 1915	3 7 6	14 12 6	25 17 6	39 7 6	56 5 0	72 10 0
Percentage of Increase.....	3 7 6	9 12 6	15 17 6	23 17 6	32 5 0	41 0 0
Increase Percentage of Taxable Salary	15.0	192.5	158.75	154.03	134.37	130.16
		10.0	7.5	8.0	*5.0	*7.2

* Decrease.

INCOME TAX.

INCOME TAX is an annual charge upon income from property or any other source, and, presumably, the income of a person. The first direct income tax was imposed by William Pitt in 1798, and was graduated on incomes from £60 to £200, and 10 per cent. upon all incomes above £200. It was a failure. Designed to produce £10 millions, it never reached more than £7½ millions, and when repealed in 1802 the loss was estimated at £5,600,000 only. It was revived in 1803, as a 5 per cent. tax, to produce £4½ millions. In 1805, 1¼ per cent. was added to it, estimated to bring £1,150,000 more. In 1806, 5 per cent. more was added, which was estimated to yield £5 millions more, dividends on public funds being made subject to it for the first time, and they were charged "at the source" of the income. The tax was repealed in 1815, just before the Battle of Waterloo, at a loss to the revenue estimated at £14,318,573. In 1917-18 the estimated yield (during war) is placed at £224 millions. When the tax was imposed in 1798 it was wholly on income, and all persons required to make returns of their whole income; but, when renewed in 1803, incomes derived from property and profits were charged at their source, and returns of the whole income were no longer required. Even now we have not yet returned to the only safe and fair method of requiring a return of each income. It was in 1803, also, that the schedules A, B, C, D, and E were introduced, and incomes distinguished in these classes. This income tax was confined to Great Britain alone. Our present income tax has been paid continuously since it was re-enacted by Peel's Act of 1842 at 7d. in the £, which also was confined to Great Britain, but Mr. Gladstone extended it to Ireland in 1853, at the reframing which then took place.

DIVIDED INTO FIVE CLASSES.

The distinction into five schedules, or classes, is made for the purpose of assessing the amounts subject to income tax in each case. As reframed in 1853 these schedules are:—

- A. For property in all lands, houses, &c. (this is popularly known as the property tax).
- B. Income from the occupation of lands, &c.—the farmer's schedule.
- C. Incomes from interest, annuities, dividends, shares in any corporation or company.
- D. The general schedules—incomes arising in any way not provided for in other schedules.

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E. Income from public office or employment, annuity, pension, &c., payable from the public revenue of the United Kingdom.

Under each of these schedules are a set of rules for assessment, designed to meet a large variety of cases, the whole a most elaborate code, and covering legislation from 1842 to the present hour. The plan of this article will not allow more than to mention two regulations of practical moment when it is clear that all income is such as is liable to assessment, viz., an allowance for premiums of insurance (which shall not exceed one-sixth of the total income), and an allowance on account of children under 16 years of age of £10 each child, conceded in 1910, and raised to £25 each in 1916, which, in 1917, has been extended to *adopted* children, and applies to incomes not exceeding a total of £700. (See below on present rates of charge.)

PROLIFIC SOURCE OF REVENUE.

Income tax (including super-tax) is now the most prolific source of the public revenue. In recent years the yield has been £44,806,000 in 1913; £47,249,000 in 1914; £69,399,000 in 1915; £128,320,000 in 1916; £205,033,000 in 1917, each year to March; and in 1917-18 it is estimated that income tax, &c., will yield £224,000,000. The year 1913 was the last complete financial year without war, and both income tax and super-tax were charged then, so making after years comparable; and we find that the estimated yield is five times as large as the receipt of 1913—another measure of war's burden. In the year's estimate of revenue for 1917-18, £638,600,000, some £464,000,000 are expected from taxes, and it appears that over 48 per cent. of that tax revenue is expected from income and super-income tax. Only excess profits duty compares with it in importance, but that duty is acknowledged to be a temporary war-tax.

As the burden of income tax has been made more severe, what was long deemed almost impossible has been done, and done successfully. Not only has a standard rate of charge been laid down, and exemptions made as regards small incomes, but incomes have been discriminated as earned and unearned, and both kinds differentiated in the rate of charge to some extent. Here follows an attempt to show *the present rate of charge, exemption, and graduation of earned and unearned incomes.*

The total assessment of an income having been ascertained, the allowances for insurance and for children under 16 (if any) have to be deducted for totals up to £700. The *rate of charge*, the standard, for 1912, 1913, and 1914 was 1s. 2d. in the £; for 1915, 1s. 8d.; for 1916, 3s.; and for 1917 and 1918 (March)

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it is 5s. in the £. (Below, it will be shown how super-tax has to be added to this standard in cases liable to the super-tax.)

GRADUATED TAXES.

But, up to 1915, all incomes which did not exceed £160 were *exempted*, and in 1916 this was reduced to £130, and if an income exceeds that amount it is charged on all above £120. There are also *abatements* on incomes charged with the tax, which are now—£120 on incomes up to £400; £100, up to £600; and £70, up to £700. (So that a £700 income would be charged £630, less insurance and allowance for children, &c.) The effect of these abatements and allowances is that of an indirect graduation. These *abatements* in 1915 affected 940,736 persons, and a total of incomes amounting to £144,908,000.

Then come the distinction between *earned* and *unearned* incomes, and the *graduation* of rates of charge, which had better be considered together. Year 1915-16, standard 3s. in £, *unearned*—£160 to £1,000, 1s. 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. in the £; £1,000 to £1,500, 2s. 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. in the £; £1,500 to £2,000, 2s. 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. in the £; £2,000 to £2,500, 2s. 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. in the £.

Now, 1917-18, standard 5s. in £, the rates between these amounts are—2s. 3d. to £500, 2s. 6d. to £1,000, 3s. to £1,500, 3s. 8d. to £2,000, 4s. 4d. to £2,500, above which amount there is no relief from the full 5s. in the £.

As for unearned incomes it was foreseen that relief was necessary in 1915-16, when the charge was at 3s., and so up to £300 the rate was at 2s. 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ d., and up to £500, at 2s. 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.; but when, in 1916-17, the rate of charge was fixed at 5s., the following relief was granted to unearned incomes:—To £500, 3s. in the £; to £1,000, 3s. 6d. in the £; to £1,500, 4s. in the £; to £2,000, 4s. 6d. in the £. Where an income is mixed, partly earned and partly unearned, it must be understood that exemptions and allowances, and abatements, are to be made as far as possible on the income paying the lower rate of charge.

The effect of these necessarily complicated arrangements is great, and favourable to the lower incomes, as, for instance, when the income tax was at 3s. in 1916, an earned income of £400 paid only what was equal to a rate of 1s. 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; and it must be remembered that the charge is on the net assessment of income, after allowances have been made for insurance, children, and so forth.

SUPER-TAX.

The *Super-income Tax*, which was imposed in 1910, was imposed at first only on incomes exceeding £5,000, but was 6d. in the £ on as much of such an income as exceeded £3,000. In 1914-15, however, it was graduated on all incomes exceeding £3,000, beginning at all in excess of £2,500. Those graduations are the basis also of the rates of charge fixed in 1915-16, *which*

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are still the rates in force now, 1917-18, as follows:—For all above £2,500 to £3,000, 10d. in the £; to £4,000, 1s. 2d. in the £; to £5,000, 1s. 6d. in the £; to £6,000, 1s. 10d. in the £; to £7,000, 2s. 2d. in the £; to £8,000, 2s. 6d. in the £; to £9,000, 2s. 10d. in the £; to £10,000, 3s. 2d. in the £; and above that sum, 3s. 6d. in the £.

Complete figures are not available yet, but it was estimated that in 1915-16 some 29,500 persons paid "super-tax." A person possessing an income of *over* £10,000 pays 8s. 6d. in the £ on combined income and super-tax in 1917-18.

Officers of the Army or Navy, or of the British Red Cross Society, or of the St. John Ambulance Association, "or any other body with similar objects," are entitled to have their income tax reduced to the following rates, *on the amount of their pay from public money*:—To £300, 9d.; to £500, 1s. 3d.; to £1,000, 1s. 9d.; to £1,500, 2s. 3d.; to £2,000, 2s. 9d.; to £2,500, 3s. 3d.; and above that sum, 3s. 6d.

OTHER SECTIONS OF THE ACT.

The later sections of the Finance Act, 1917, dealing with income tax, touch matters of importance, but of somewhat technical and less popular interest, such as taxing incomes accumulated under trusts, interest on advances by members of stock exchanges and discount houses, and provisions dealing with deduction of tax on income from Exchequer Bonds and War Loans; but the above outline will be of use to the great majority of the 1,200,000, or so, who pay income tax.

It is of much interest, too, to notice that throughout the Income Tax Acts there seems to be an assumption that the incomes dealt with are the incomes of a single individual; and, perhaps, there would not be a question of this were it not for the discontinuation of the practice requiring a declaration of whole income from each person.

The rate of income tax in 1842 was 7d.; in 1855 (Crimean War), 1s. 2d.; it was down to 4d. in 1874; it is now 5s. (plus the super-tax), the highest rate ever known.

Farmers are now assessed on the *full* rental value of their farms; but may be assessed, should they prefer it, in the general schedule D.



The Pace with which Japan is advancing industrially is indicated by the increase in employment. For instance, in 1896 there were 119,000 workers engaged in mines, and 235,000 in 1912. Factory workers were 434,000 in 1896, and 863,000 in 1912. Of 698,000 textile operatives 600,000 were females. Textile wages were, on the average, per day, 1s. 3d. male weavers, 6¼d. female weavers, 7½d. female silk spinners.

LEGAL NOTES.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, DEATHS.

MARRIAGES must take place between the hours of eight a.m. and three p.m. in either (a) churches of the Church of England; (b) Nonconformist churches registered for the purpose; or (c) before a Superintendent Registrar.

(a) In the Church of England banns must be proclaimed on three Sundays previous to the marriage, as set forth in the Prayer Book. When the parties to the marriage reside in different parishes the banns must be proclaimed in both, and a certificate obtained from the priest who does not perform the ceremony. If one of the parties resides in Scotland the proclamation must be in the parish church of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. The fee for a copy of the parish entry of the marriage is 2s. 7d. The clergyman's fee is usually arranged according to the means of the parties. Two witnesses, present at the marriage, are necessary to sign the register.

Marriages may take place by licence obtainable as follows: The common licence from (1) the Vicar-General's Office, 3, Creed Lane, Ludgate Hill, E.C. 4; (2) the Faculty Office, 23, Knight-riding Street, Doctor's Commons, E.C. 4; (3) the Registry Office of the Bishop of the Diocese; or (4) from any Surrogate appointed by the Diocesan Bishop. The conditions of these licences vary. When obtained from (3) and (4) they are conditional upon the marriage taking place in the diocese in which they are granted. With (1) the marriage may take place in London and that part of the country south of the Midlands; and with (2) the ceremony may be held in London or in any parish in England and Wales. In any of these cases the marriage can take place without public notice as soon as the licence is issued, but one of the contracting parties must have been resident in the parish in which it takes place. The fees for these licences vary from £2 to £2. 12s. 6d.

Special licences, for which the fees amount to £29. 5s. 6d., are granted only by the Archbishop of Canterbury, who personally considers the application through the Faculty Office, Doctor's Commons, E.C. Such licences obviate the ordinary regulations concerning previous residence, and the marriage can take place at any time and in any parish.

(b) For marriage in a Nonconformist church or a Salvation Army barracks notice must be given personally by one of the parties to the Superintendent Registrar of the district in which each of the parties reside. He or she must sign a declaration in the presence of the Superintendent or his deputy to the effect that there is no legal impediment to the marriage. The legal notice of the event must be posted in the office of the Registrar for a period of twenty-one days after the notice has been received. The Registrar, at the expiration of the period, will issue a certificate authorising the marriage, unless in the meantime lawful impediment has been proved. The fees for a marriage certificate total 7s.; the fee for a minister varies. The marriage must take place in the presence of the Registrar of the district (unless the Church has made special arrangements under the Act of 1898), and with at least two witnesses.

In a Nonconformist church, also, marriage may take place by licence, issued by the Superintendent Registrar on the application of one of the parties. Notice need only be given in one of the districts in which the parties reside. The Registrar grants both certificate and licence after the interval of one week-day (Good Friday and Christmas Day not counting) following that on which the notice is given. Special fees are charged amounting to £2. 14s. 6d.

(c) A marriage before a Superintendent Registrar must take place in the presence of two witnesses, and each of the parties has to make a

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solemn declaration to the effect that they do not know of any legal impediment to the ceremony.

REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS.—The Notification of Births Act, 1907, was compulsorily put in force for England and Wales by the Act of 1915. Under it, the father of the child, or, if he does not reside in the house, any person in attendance on the mother, must give notice of the birth to the local Medical Officer of Health within thirty-six hours.

The duty of the *registration* of the births of all children born alive falls upon the father or mother, and must be done within a period of forty-two days from the time of birth. Failure on their part imposes liability for this duty on either the occupier of the house in which the birth took place, the nurse or other person present at the birth, or the person in charge of the child. Liability for a penalty of 40s. is incurred by neglect to perform this duty. Registration is free. No birth can be registered after a period of three months from the time of birth, except under certain regulations and the payment of special fees.

VACCINATION.—Every child is required to be vaccinated within a period of six months, unless a doctor certifies that the child is too delicate for vaccination, or unless an exemption has been obtained. Vaccination may be performed either by a private but duly registered medical man, or by the Public Vaccinator, who is paid by the Board of Guardians in the district. When performed privately a certificate must be forwarded to the Vaccination

Officer. Parents with conscientious objections to vaccination may obtain an exemption, within a period of four months after the child's birth, by making a statutory declaration before a Commissioner for Oaths, or one Justice of the Peace, to the effect that they conscientiously believe that vaccination will prejudice the child's health. No penalties under the Act then can be imposed.

REGISTRATION OF DEATHS.—The duty of registering a death rests upon the nearest relatives present at the death, or during the last illness, or living in the same district; failing them, it falls upon those present at the death, or the occupier of the house, or the person ordering the burial. Registration should be made within five days of the death, either personally or in writing; but, if done in writing, the notice must be accompanied by a medical certificate of the cause of death, and the register must still be signed within fourteen days. A certificate of registry should be obtained from the Registrar before the funeral, and handed to the clergyman or minister performing the funeral rites—a duty usually fulfilled by the undertaker. Failure to comply with the Act will involve those responsible in penalties.

If a registered medical practitioner cannot issue a certificate as to the cause of death the police must be informed, who in turn will communicate with the coroner, who then decides, upon the evidence submitted to him, whether an inquest is necessary.



POSTAL REGULATIONS.

Inland Letter Post.—1oz., 1d.; from 1oz. to 2oz., 2d.; and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for every additional 2oz. Maximum length, 24in.; width, 12in.

Foreign Letters.—First ounce, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; every additional ounce or fraction of ounce, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. To America, Egypt, and most British Possessions, 1d. per ounce.

Newspapers.— $\frac{1}{2}$ d. up to 6oz. Above 6oz., $\frac{1}{2}$ d. extra for every 6oz. To Colonies and foreign countries, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per 2oz.

Halfpenny Packets.—Weighing 2oz., $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. more for each successive 2oz. Foreign, 2oz., $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for printed papers; for first 10oz. of commercial papers, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for every 2oz. afterwards.

Inland Book Rate.—Weighing 2oz., $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Every additional 2oz., or fraction of 2oz., $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Samples.—Abroad, 4oz. 1d., and 2oz. afterwards $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Parcels.—Under 1lb., 4d.; 2lb., 5d.; 3lb., 6d.; 5lb., 7d.; 7lb., 8d.; 8lb., 9d.; 9lb., 10d.; 10lb., 11d.; and 11lb. (maximum allowed), 1s. Must not exceed 3ft. 6in. in length; or length and girth together 6ft. To U.S.A. (by U.S. Post Office), 3lb., 1s. 6d.; 7lb., 2s. 6d.; 9lb., 3s. 6d.; and 11lb. (maximum allowed), 4s. 6d. Or, by American Express Co., to New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, or Hoboken, 3lb., 2s. 6d.; 7lb., 3s. 6d.; 11lb., 4s. 6d. To other parts of U.S.A., 3lb., 3s. 6d.; 7lb., 4s. 6d.; 11lb., 5s. 6d.

Postcards.—Inland, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Foreign, 1d.



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84, Westmorland Road.

BRADFORD: 65, Sunbridge Road.

CARDIFF: 113/116, St. Mary Street.

LONDON: 14, Red Lion Square,

Holborn, W.C.

DUBLIN: 3, Commercial Bldgs., Dame St.

AGENCIES IN ALL CO-OPERATIVE CENTRES.

SAVINGS BANKS.

AS savings banks are essentially the poor man's depository, the statistics thereof are of utility in enabling us to gain some idea of the poor man's bank balance, which may be regarded as his financial umbrella for the rainy day which is inevitable. To begin with, let us take the aggregate sum in the savings banks in the United Kingdom due to depositors on November 20th, 1899 and 1913, and note the aggregate increase.

	1899.		1913.		Increase in 14 Years.
	£		£		£
*Post Office Savings Banks	130,118,605	...	187,248,167	...	57,129,562
Trustee Savings Banks	51,404,929	...	54,258,861	...	2,853,932
	<u>181,523,534</u>	...	<u>241,507,028</u>	...	<u>59,983,494</u>

*The Board of Trade exhorts us to note that the figures are exclusive of the Government Stock held for depositors.

On the strength of these figures there are people (who ought to know better) who are apt to convey the idea that the British working man is sailing gaily along the highway of affluence, with an orchid in his button-hole and a pocket-book of portly dimensions stuffed to repletion with £5 notes. But this is to lose sight of the fact that if there are multi-millions in the savings banks there are also multi-millions to share it. And how these millions of depositors in the United Kingdom have increased is shown by the number of accounts open in the savings banks in the years 1899 and 1913.

Accounts Open.	1899.	1913.	Increase.
In Post Office Savings Banks, Dec. 31st	8,046,680	13,198,609	5,151,929
In Trustee Savings Banks, Nov. 20th	1,601,485	1,912,816	311,331
	<u>9,648,165</u>	<u>15,111,425</u>	<u>5,463,260</u>

Divide the multi-millions of deposits with the multi-millions of depositors and we get the naked results:—

	£	s.	d.
1899.—Average Amount Standing to Each Depositor's Credit...	18	16	3
1913.— " " " " " "	15	19	7
Lessened average	2	16	8

Thus, instead of affording increasing shelter, the umbrella for a rainy day, like the shagreen skin in Balzac's story, has shrunk with the years.

As the Post Office Savings Bank figures are far more comprehensive and significant than those of the Trustee Savings Banks, they are

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entitled to be considered apart and in fuller detail. First, let us take the number of accounts open on December 31st in the years 1899 and 1913, and compare them:—

	1899.		1913.		Increase.
*England and Wales.....	7,332,728	...	11,874,750	...	4,542,022
Scotland	351,236	...	644,636	...	293,400
Ireland	362,716	...	679,223	...	316,507
	<u>8,046,680</u>	...	<u>13,198,609</u>	...	<u>5,151,929</u>

* Including Islands in the British Seas.

The average increase per year works out at 324,430 for England and Wales, 20,957 for Scotland, 22,607 for Ireland, and for the United Kingdom as a whole, 367,994.

Next, let us consider the aggregate amounts standing to the credit of depositors on December 31st in 1899 and 1913 in the different parts of the United Kingdom.

	1899.		1913.		Increase.
	£		£		£
England and Wales	117,619,724	...	165,996,287	...	48,376,563
Scotland	4,787,810	...	8,089,985	...	3,302,175
Ireland	7,711,071	...	13,161,895	...	5,450,824
	<u>130,118,605</u>	...	<u>187,248,167</u>	...	<u>57,129,562</u>

To the figures for normal times must now be added those of the United Kingdom during the war period, so far as available, *i.e.*, for the years 1914 and 1915.

	Total Number of Accounts Open at the End of the Year.		Total Balance Due to Depositors. £
1914	13,514,814	190,533,208
1915	14,180,086	186,327,584

After this the average and diminishing balance due to depositors is calculated to afford considerable food for reflection.

AVERAGE SUM DUE TO DEPOSITORS.

	England and Wales.			Scotland.			Ireland.			United Kingdom.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.			
1899	16	0	9	...	13	6	11	...	21	5	2	...	16	3	4
1913	13	19	6	...	12	10	11	...	19	7	6	...	14	3	8
1914	—			...	—			...	—			...	14	1	11
1915	—			...	—			...	—			...	13	2	9

Average Shrinkage per Account from 1899 to 1915..... 3 0 7

Of the total average shrinkage, amounting to £3. 0s. 7d., £1. 0s. 11d., or practically one-third, has been effected in the first 18 months of war, whilst a continuance of the shrinkage is portended by the statement of the Postmaster-General in Parliament on June 5th, 1917, the Post Office Savings Bank deposits then amounting to £185,400,000. Thus, hard facts serve to proclaim the absurdity of the roseate statements that the war period is a period of record prosperity for

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the masses. And, needless to say, if the bank balance figures of the profiteering interests could only be placed side by side with those for the savings banks, the hard facts would be harder still.

"Ah," but it may be said, "the masses are now investing their savings in war loans; that's where the money is going to." In answer to this, it may be pointed out in the first place that there were no war loans before the war, and in the second place that investments in war loans are possible only to a fraction of workers. To the majority, reduced to a diet conformable to the cost of living, during the war period the word "savings" has a Gilbertian significance, and war loan investments still more so.

The shrinkage in the average amount due to depositors, be it noted, is not confined to the Post Office Savings Banks. The Trustee Savings Banks (whose deposits are, in the aggregate, less than a third of those in the Post Office Savings Banks, but whose average amount due to depositors is twice as large) show a falling off on the average to a large extent in normal times:—

	£	s.	d.
1899.—Average Amount due to Depositors	32	1	11
1913.— " " " "	28	7	3
Shrinkage	3	14	8

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RAILWAYMEN'S SAVINGS BANKS.

THESE banks are constituted under Acts of Parliament promoted by railway companies, and have as their general aim the encouragement of thrift amongst the employes of the respective companies. The following particulars relate to the 20 railway savings banks which were on the register during 1915:—

Year of Existence of Bank.	Name of Railway.	Total Amount due to Depositors.	Number of Deposit Accounts.	Average Amount of each Account.
		£		£
ENGLAND AND WALES.				
55th ...	Great Central	915,733	6,841	133·9
46th ...	South-Eastern	586,327	4,862	120·6
41st ...	Metropolitan	101,813	1,113	91·5
36th ...	Great Eastern	726,537	10,187	71·3
34th ...	Metropolitan District	*10,138	5	2,027·6
33rd ...	London and South-Western	613,316	7,349	83·5
31st ...	Lancashire and Yorkshire	694,127	10,170	68·3
24th ...	London, Chatham, and Dover	109,494	1,158	94·6
24th ...	Great Western	752,302	9,332	80·6
21st ...	London and North-Western	880,206	8,922	98·7
21st ...	Taff Vale	33,109	687	48·2
18th ...	Great Northern	292,948	4,443	65·9
10th ...	Hull and Barnsley	22,774	321	70·9
8th ...	North Staffordshire	72,178	1,159	62·3
1st ...	Midland	208,917	5,081	41·1
SCOTLAND.				
51st ...	Glasgow and South-Western	328,191	2,302	142·6
41st ...	Caledonian	992,997	7,342	135·2
38th ...	North British	622,858	3,662	170·1
29th ...	Highland	91,310	957	95·4
22nd ...	Great North of Scotland	80,255	766	104·8
	Total	8,135,530	86,659	93·9

* The Deposits include Provident Fund and Friendly Society Deposits.



THE PUBLIC TRUSTEE.

THE SCOPE AND DUTIES OF THE OFFICE AND WHAT HAS BEEN ACCOMPLISHED.

THE intention of the State in constituting a Public Trustee was to create some Government official, guaranteed as to his integrity by the Consolidated Fund, who could act as an executor and/or as a trustee under wills, or as a trustee under marriage and other voluntary settlements.

The Public Trustee Act was passed in December, 1906. During the twenty-one years of Parliamentary effort to get the Bill upon the Statute Book a Select Committee

was appointed in 1895 to investigate the allegations made by those who supported the project. That committee, over which Lord Loreburn (then Sir Robert Reid as Attorney-General) presided, found that:—

“The frequency of instances in which beneficiaries suffer loss from the defalcations of dishonest trustees, or the negligence of careless and incompetent trustees, is a very serious matter. . . . The evidence puts beyond question that large sums of money are annually misappropriated

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by private trustees. No doubt the money so stolen bears but a small proportion to the vast sums in trust in this country; but, though accurate statistics upon such a subject are not available, the highest authorities confirm the prevalent opinion of the public that much loss and consequent suffering is caused by this kind of malversation, and those who suffer are chiefly the poorer and more helpless."

A writer in the *Times*, in 1904, pointed out that the total liabilities of the 248 solicitors who had failed during the six years preceding 1904 was £2,285,764, and went on to say: "Large as this figure is, the human misery that it represents is far greater than at first appears."

The committee also found that there was a considerable difficulty in finding competent and trustworthy trustees.

At length the Bill of 1906 became law, and an official called "The Public Trustee" was thus set up to act under wills and under settlements, and in several other ancillary capacities of a minor character.

"In the opinion of the committee there is no need for the creation of such an office of Public Trustee, and the extension of officialism in this direction is objectionable. The committee have little doubt that the proposed scheme *is doomed to failure*. English people object to have their properties administered by officials of whom they know nothing, and whose interference in their private affairs is utterly distasteful. There is no evidence of any public demand for the establishment of a new official department to carry on business of this kind. The committee considered that opposition to any such Bill should be continued."

As Mr. Lloyd George added: "What prophecy could have been more completely falsified by the event?"

The Office opened on January 1st, 1908, with a staff of five men; while its last annual report speaks of its having a staff of 700, and testifies to a continual and rapid expansion of business.

THE RECORD OF BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

BUSINESS TRANSACTED SINCE JANUARY 1ST, 1908.	APPROXIMATE VALUES OF TRUSTS ACCEPTED.	
1908-15 (87 months)	7,473	£60,798,294
1915-16 (12 months)	1,595	16,622,194
1916-17 (12 months)	1,811	16,544,193
	10,879	93,964,681
Trusts in course of being transferred		3,282,880
Total Business up to March 31st, 1917.....		97,247,561
Applications from 6,302 Intending Testators requesting that the Public Trustee should act as Executor and/or Trustee disclose a possible future business of an estimated value of.....		96,391,141
Total Value of the Business negotiated since January 1st, 1908 (4,116 Wills have been deposited for safe custody)		£193,638,702

The present Prime Minister, when defending his Budget in the *Times* of July 14th, 1910, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, pointed out that the legal profession by formal resolution condemned the enterprise to hopeless failure. The resolution ran:—

The department is called upon by the Act of Parliament to pay its way; that is to say, the fees are to be sufficient to provide all expenses and to provide an insurance fund against loss, and no more.

For the first eighteen months the

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expenses of the department exceeded its receipts, and there was a deficiency of £5,208. But from that point it turned the corner, and has paid its way ever since, showing to date:—

A cash surplus over all expenses of	£23,000
Certain fees earned but not collected	10,000
Furniture and contents of the department valued at (Subject to depreciation)	4,000
Or a total of cash and assets over expenses from October 1st, 1907, to March 31st, 1916, of.....	<u>£37,000</u>

Its experience during the war has been that its business has doubled in the war period, as the following table shows:—

The business taken in the 6½ years prior to the war was.....	£52,000,000
The business taken in the 2½ years during the war was valued at	42,000,000
Trusts in course of acceptance	<u>3,000,000</u>
Or a total value of estates and trusts dealt with since 1908 of.....	<u>£97,000,000</u>

The annual income is now about £100,000, and is calculated to meet the expenses of an approximately similar amount.

An interesting feature of the department is its assistance to those whom the Select Committee of 1895 referred to as "poor and helpless" coming in contact with the department through what are called "small estates" under Section 3 of the Act of Parliament (that is to say, the estate must be of a value not exceeding £1,000 gross, and those beneficially entitled must be persons of small means).

The Section also goes on to provide expeditious and economical assistance by a Judge of the Chancery Division in legal matters of importance arising out of these cases; and the department further provides in those trusts where children are concerned the services of lady visitors to watch over the interests of minors, or, as regards adults, infirm persons, who may require or may

benefit by some supervisory assistance.

In another direction the department also comes in contact with people of small means as regards its work under compensation cases.

The present Master of the Rolls was instrumental in introducing and amending the Rules of Court so that damages recovered by infants in the High Court, either under the Fatal Accidents Act or in respect of some injury sustained, are transferred automatically, unless the Judge otherwise orders, to the department for administration on the children's behalf.

Here, again, the machinery is of the simplest and most economical character, and, in all, some 2,000 children are beneficiaries under the funds in the custody of the department. As in the "small estates" above, so these compensation cases also receive the further benefit of the general organisation of the department, including the supervisory assistance of the lady visitors already referred to.

The funds in these last cases are small, £700 or £800 rarely being exceeded, while in some cases amounts of less than £20 are dealt with.

It is hardly likely that the receipts of the department for these cases are remunerative, but the action of the department is undoubtedly valuable, and, from the social and economical aspect where working-class children are concerned, real benefit undoubtedly results.

In 1914 an office was opened in Manchester for the convenience of persons having business in the North of England, and the progress of that branch is satisfactory, the number and value of trusts under administration in Manchester being as follows:—

1914-15.—209 trusts	
valued at	£1,327,130
1915-16.—384 trusts	
valued at	2,492,533
1916-17.—575 trusts	
valued at	3,505,746

In addition, 49 new cases valued at £782,880 were in course of acceptance on March 31st, 1917. According to the last report the branch is already self-supporting.

INFANT MORTALITY.

THE decline in the rate of infant mortality during the present century may be contrasted with the state of affairs in the period preceding; and what that was may be realised from the fact that in the quinquennium 1896-1900 the figure was as high as that for 1851-5, and that in the years 1895 and 1899 the rate actually reached 161 and 163 per 1,000 births, or the highest figures during the whole half-century. Then, in the first quinquennium of the present century, came a subsidence which brought the infant death-rate to about the same level as that in 1881-5, and the two succeeding quinquennia have shown a further decline. The pith of the matter is contained in the following figures:—

DEATHS OF INFANTS UNDER ONE YEAR PER 1,000 BIRTHS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

1896 1900.	...	1901-05.	...	1906-10.	...	1911-15.
156		138		117		110

As to the causes of this decline it would be difficult to avoid the conclusion that the decline of the birth-rate has been at least one factor among others. Another factor now in operation is the Notification of Births Act, which was passed in 1907 and made compulsory for all parts of England and Wales in 1915. But, however gratifying the decline may be, when we contemplate the huge wastage of young life indicated in the following figures we find no cause for complacency.

Year.	Deaths of Infants Under One Year.	Proportion per 1,000 Births.	Percentage of Total Deaths.
1913	95,608	108	18·9
1914	91,971	105	17·8
1915	89,380	110	15·9

And, when the deaths at later periods are added thereto, the wastage of young life assumes nightmare proportions. Thus, in 1915, 144,937 children died under five years of age, and, altogether, 181,436 beings of both sexes and all ages under 21 years were consigned to the grave.

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Meanwhile, the fact that different areas have their characteristic infantile rates is illustrated by the figures for 1915:—

	North.	Midlands.	South.	Wales.	England and Wales.
London	—	—	112	—	112
County Boroughs	131	116	94	114	122
Other Urban Districts.....	120	100	87	120	107
Rural Districts	106	84	78	97	90
All Areas	124	102	99	112	110

To quote the Registrar-General: "The fact that infant mortality is considerably higher under the conditions of town than of country life is well known, and the rate for the rural districts is exceeded accordingly by 19 per cent. in the case of the smaller towns, and by 36 per cent. in that of the county boroughs, but only by 24 per cent. in the case of London. The comparatively small excess in London shows to what a large extent the adverse influence of urban surroundings on infant life may be avoided."

Taking the counties characterised by the highest and lowest infant death-rates respectively—a dozen of each—the contrast is notable. In the one group figure all the industrial counties; the others are all rural.

County.	1911-15.	1915.	County.	1911-15.	1915.
Durham	134	133	Oxfordshire	70	69
Lancashire.....	122	120	Hertfordshire	71	75
Glamorganshire	122	115	Berkshire	71	85
Monmouthshire	120	126	Wiltshire.....	72	76
Northumberland	115	121	Somersetshire.....	73	75
West Riding	117	112	Dorsetshire	74	79
Staffordshire	115	109	Surrey	76	75
Carmarthenshire	113	102	Herefordshire	76	79
Denbighshire.....	112	109	Buckinghamshire...	77	87
Cumberland	111	121	Huntingdonshire ...	78	81
Brecknockshire	111	112	Gloucestershire	79	84
Nottinghamshire	109	114	Westmorland	81	74

But it is in the hives of industry where the curse of infant mortality is seen at its worst. Thus in 1911-15 no fewer than 63 county boroughs had an infant death-rate of 100 and upwards per 1,000 births, while 43 of them figured with a rate of 120 and upwards; in 16 the rate ranged between 130 and 140, while four figured with a rate between 140 and 150; in another four the rate reached from 150 to 160, and at the summit of all stood Burnley with an infant mortality rate reaching 171. The predominant characteristic of the 43 county boroughs in question may be seen by the list.

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Town.	Infant Death-rate per 1,000 Births.		Town.	Infant Death rate per 1,000 Births.	
	1911-15.	1915.		1911-15.	1915.
Burnley	171	166	South Shields.....	130	143
Wigan	160	164	Leeds.....	130	127
Stoke-on-Trent	159	148	Bury.....	133	116
Barnsley	156*	172	West Bromwich ...	129	133
Preston	150	155	Bolton.....	129	124
Middlesbrough	145	150	Sheffield.....	128	133
Blackburn	144	146	Birmingham	127	118
Walsall	142	142	Newcastle-on-Tyne	126	134
St. Helens	141	128	West Hartlepool....	125	150
Nottingham	138	131	Hull.....	125	120
Sunderland	137	151	Tynemouth	123	135
Merthyr Tydfil	137	136	Plymouth	123	119
Liverpool.....	137	133	Swansea.....	123	106
Oldham.....	137	125	Bradford.....	122	123
Salford	136	134	Grimsby	122	106
Stockport	136	127	Leicester	121	124
Dudley.....	135	125	Rochdale	121	118
Bootle.....	134	142	Smethwick	121	109
Gateshead	134	147	Wolverhampton ...	120	132
Rotherham	134	120	Wakefield	120‡	120
Carlisle.....	133†	144	Dewsbury.....	120*	115
Manchester.....	133	123			

* 1913-15 only. † 1914-15 only. ‡ 1915 only.

Finally, whilst the subjoined international figures indicate progress made during the present century, they also reveal the immense scope for the saving of infant life. After the war, at all events, the nations of Europe will have the strongest possible motive for tackling this terrible wastage in right dead earnest.

DEATHS OF CHILDREN UNDER ONE YEAR TO 1,000 BIRTHS
(EXCLUSIVE OF STILLBORN).

Country.	1896-1900	1911-15.	Country.	1896-1900	1911-15.
Russia in Europe.....	261	243*	Bulgaria	143	156¶
Austria	226	193†	Switzerland	143	101‡
Hungary.....	219	196†	Finland.....	139	111‡
Roumania	211	193‡	Denmark	132	97
Prussia.....	201	167†	Scotland	129	113
German Empire.....	199§	163	Ireland	106	91
Spain**.....	173	166	Sweden	109	71
Italy.....	169	140	Norway	99	66‡
Serbia.....	159	146¶			
Belgium	158	143†			
France.....	157	98†	Chile.....	299	282‡
England and Wales..	156	130	Japan.....	153	153
Netherlands	151	99	Australia	112	70
United Kingdom.....	149	108	New Zealand	80	53

* 1906-9, the latest figure available. † 1911-12 only. ‡ 1911-14. § 1901-5. || 1911-13 only. ¶ 1911 only. ** The figures for Spain are for 1900 and 1906-7 respectively; later figures are unavailable.

STATISTICS OF OCCUPATIONS.

ACCORDING to the census of 1911 the occupied population of England and Wales comprised 16,286,919 persons; of Scotland, 2,066,967; of Ireland, 1,805,470; and of the United Kingdom, 20,159,356. In England and Wales the occupied population constituted 57·1 per cent. of the total number of persons of 10 years and upwards; in Scotland, 55·6 per cent.; in Ireland, 51·3 per cent.; and in the United Kingdom as a whole, 56·3 per cent. Thus, rather more than one-half of the population of 10 years of age and upwards may be said to keep things going; in other words, the whole population of the United Kingdom (45,221,665) is practically maintained by 20,159,356, or by a fractional part equal to 42·7 per cent. As regards the sex distribution in occupations, it may be stated that over four-fifths of the males of 10 years and upwards are engaged in some avocation, and close on one-third of the number of females of the same ages, and that as regards both sexes the largest proportion of occupied is in England and Wales. Here are the figures:—

	Occupied Males.	Percentage of the Population of 10 years and upwards.	Occupied Females.	Percentage.
England and Wales...	11,456,167	83·8	4,830,752	32·5
Scotland	1,473,757	82·6	593,210	30·7
Ireland.....	1,377,583	78·7	427,887	24·2

Taking next the percentages in England and Wales for a period, the figures show a slight increase in the proportion of occupied males and a decrease in the proportion of occupied females, the outcome being a slight net decrease in the proportion of occupied persons, and an increase in the proportion of the class of retired or unoccupied:—

ENGLAND AND WALES.

	Proportion of Males amongst Occupied Persons.	Proportion of Females amongst Occupied Persons.	Proportion of Occupied Persons amongst those of 10 years and upwards.	Retired or Unoccupied.
1881 ...	83·3	34·0	57·8	42·1
1891 ...	83·1	34·4	57·8	42·1
1901 ...	83·7	31·6	56·5	43·4
1911 ...	83·8	32·5	57·1	42·8

During the present century the proportion of occupied males has shown practically no variation, while the proportion of occupied females has increased about 1 per cent.; while the class figuring as retired or unoccupied has shown a slight diminution. A classification based strictly on work and social utility would, of course, give us very different figures. As it is, the irony of a classification according to gain earning occupations may be realised by the consideration that

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the housewives, whose work never ends, are classed amongst the unoccupied or retired, while the millionaire who spends an annual ten minutes in glancing over the balance sheet of his firm, and an extra two minutes in making out a receipt for his share of the profits, may figure in the returns as an occupied person.

PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES.

A glance at the summary of principal industries or services suffices to show (in the 1911 census figures) that domestic indoor service takes precedence over all the rest; agriculture, coal-mining, building, and the cotton manufacture ranking next in the scale of numerical importance. Of the 18 industries or services enumerated females preponderate in six, viz., domestic service, the cotton manufacture, dressmaking, teaching, the wool and worsted manufacture, and drapery, besides being equal to males in number in the tailoring industry. Domestic service occupies in females alone practically as many persons as the railway service, the engineering, machine-making, ironfounding and boilermaking trades, and national government all put together. Taking the principal industries together the number of females constitutes slightly over a third of the total of over nine million persons employed.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES OR SERVICES IN 1911.

Industries or Services.	Net Total in Industry or Service.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Domestic Indoor Service	1,302,438	41,765	1,260,673
Agriculture (on Farms, Woods, and Gardens)	1,229,555	1,134,714	94,841
Coal-mining	971,236	968,051	3,185
Building	817,942	814,989	2,953
Cotton Manufacture	623,825	250,991	372,834
Local Government (including Police and Poor Law Services)	588,951	412,501	176,450
Railway Companies' Service	542,969	535,799	7,170
Engineering and Machine-making, Ironfounding and Boilermaking	510,226	502,942	7,284
Dressmaking	336,955	3,826	333,129
Teaching	300,831	89,648	211,183
Inn, Hotel—Service	289,056	178,550	110,506
Grocery	269,322	210,387	58,935
Tailoring	254,828	127,301	127,527
Printing, Bookbinding, and Stationery.....	249,465	161,856	87,609
National Government	249,199	215,110	34,089
Wool and Worsted Manufacture	233,189	105,552	127,637
Boot, Shoe, &c., Making.....	217,986	172,000	45,986
Drapery	204,126	93,171	110,955

N.B.—The fact that the figures of principal industries are net, and those in the occupational tables are gross, explains some discrepancy.

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THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF FEMALES.

The ever-increasing industrialisation of females is clearly revealed in the following census figures, which (excluding domestic service) showed in 1911 a preponderance of females in 15 out of 23 occupations, as compared with a preponderance in seven in 1861:—

Occupations.	Proportion of Females per 1,000 Persons Occupied.					
	1861.	1871.	1881.	1891.	1901.	1911.
Agriculture.....	70	59	47	40	33	29
Schoolmasters, Teachers, Professors, Lecturers	725	741	727	740	745	727
Photographers	66	147	197	234	257	297
Laundry and Washing Service	990	987	981	964	957	931
Commercial or Business Clerks	5	16	33	72	153	245
Telegraph, Telephone—Service (including Government).....	82	76	236	291	406	522
Earthenware, China, Porcelain—Manufacture	311	354	384	385	392	421
India-rubber Workers, Waterproof Goods Makers	206	200	275	391	398	370
Brush, Broom—Makers; Hair, Bristle—Workers	321	346	382	389	431	440
Paper Manufacture.....	417	395	444	401	366	312
Stationery, Paper Box, &c.—Makers and Dealers	345	380	531	600	643	653
Cotton Manufacture.....	567	598	620	609	628	614
Wool and Worsted Manufacture.....	461	513	561	557	582	571
Silk Manufacture	642	676	691	667	702	693
Hemp, Jute, Cocoa Fibre, Rope, Mat, Canvas, Sailcloth, &c.—Manufacture	265	304	374	393	492	530
Hosiery Manufacture	468	468	533	629	713	735
Lace Manufacture.....	829	826	743	625	653	630
Carpet, Rug, Felt—Manufacture	183	312	362	440	517	544
Drapers, Linen Drapers, Mercers	208	257	349	433	504	560
Straw—Plait, Hat, Bonnet Manufacture ...	921	926	903	814	737	666
Glove Makers.....	864	882	854	769	761	731
Boot, Shoe, Slipper, Patten, Clog—Makers and Dealers	154	115	160	185	210	226
Tobacco Manufacturers: Tobacconists.....	221	296	435	548	601	596

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The counties, of course, show a wide variation in the proportion of occupied females. The counties showing the highest and lowest proportions respectively are as follows:—

The 12 Highest.	Total Occupied per 10,000.	The 12 Lowest.	Total Occupied per 10,000.
Lancashire.....	4,086	Denbighshire	2,557
London	3,956	Huntingdonshire	2,520
Bedfordshire	3,595	Lincoln (Holland)	2,514
Cardiganshire	3,560	Flintshire.....	2,500
Cheshire	3,468	Norfolk	2,461
Leicestershire	3,448	Isle of Ely	2,422
Westmorland	3,426	Lincoln (Kesteven)	2,413
Radnorshire	3,378	Lincoln (Lindsey)	2,228
Worcestershire.....	3,367	Northumberland	2,029
Somersetshire.....	3,341	Glamorganshire	1,794
Surrey.....	3,335	Monmouthshire	1,763
Warwickshire	3,303	Durham	1,580

The fact that four mining counties figure last in the list bespeaks the poverty of women's occupations, whilst the position of Lancashire at the top of the scale is attributable to the scale of its textile industries. The considerable proportion of occupied females shown in various rural counties is attributable to the range of domestic service therein.

THE POSITION AT A GLANCE.

The industrialisation of women in England and Wales may be summed up as follows:—

In 1901 occupied females numbered	4,171,751
In 1911 occupied females numbered	4,830,734

Increase in 10 years

658,983, or 15·8%

In 1901 29·1 per cent. of all occupied persons consisted of females.

In 1911 the proportion reached 29·6 per cent.

Next, as regards married women and widows:—

In 1901 occupied married women and widows numbered	917,709
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In 1911 occupied married women and widows numbered	1,091,202
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Increase in 10 years

173,493, or 18·9%

In 1901 22 per cent. of the total number of occupied females consisted of married women and widows.

In 1911 the proportion reached 22·6 per cent.

These figures need no elaboration. They speak for themselves.

EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.

The extent of the evil of child employment is shown by the successive census returns. Although the figures declare a diminution, the fact that one boy in five, or thereabouts, and one girl in ten are

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still bound to the wheels of industry is indicative of one of the glaring blots on British civilisation.

Census.	Proportion per cent. Occupied in each sex at ages 10 to 15.		Census.	Proportion per cent. Occupied in each sex at ages 10 to 15.	
	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
1851.....	36.6	19.9	1891.....	26.0	16.3
1861.....	36.9	20.2	1901.....	21.0	12.0
1871.....	32.1	20.4	1911.....	18.3	10.4
1881.....	22.9	15.1			

The fact that the textile areas of Lancashire and Yorkshire (West Riding), *i.e.*, the areas where industrialism is most conspicuous, and where the standard of wages has made most advance, are also the most conspicuous for child employment is indicative of the irony of things. Thus in Lancashire at the last census there were no fewer than 37 towns, and in Yorkshire (West Riding) 18 towns, with populations from 5,000 to 50,000, in which upwards of 25 per cent. of the boys or girls between 10 and 14 were employed. As for the large towns, while some show a decrease, the trend of things in others is revealed by the fact that quite a number show an increased proportion of children employed, as the following figures denoting the percentage of boys and girls (of ages from 10 to 14) occupied conclusively show.

	1901.		1911.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Blackburn	29.3	29.4	30.1	29.6
Halifax.....	30.9	28.9	30.7	27.4
Burnley	30.4	29.2	30.6	28.0
Rochdale	25.7	21.6	27.5	26.3
Bradford	26.6	23.1	26.4	24.5
Bolton	27.3	20.8	26.3	23.6
Oldham.....	25.1	17.5	26.2	22.8
Preston	21.5	24.5	20.3	23.3
Bury	23.1	22.1	20.8	17.8
Huddersfield	17.1	12.5	18.4	16.7
Northampton	14.0	10.1	18.3	12.4
Dewsbury	12.0	6.1	15.5	12.2
Wigan	12.9	7.7	15.4	11.8
Leeds	13.8	8.3	15.1	11.3
Stoke-on-Trent	13.9	8.2	14.3	9.7
West Bromwich.....	12.9	4.3	15.0	6.6
Stockport.....	19.6	15.1	11.1	10.4
Wakefield	14.3	5.0	12.4	7.6
Barnsley	15.4	4.0	14.9	4.3
Sheffield	12.8	5.2	12.8	4.7
Burton-on-Trent.....	12.5	4.1	11.0	3.4
Merthyr Tydfil.....	14.6	2.4	13.0	0.9
Aberdare.....	17.3	3.0	12.9	0.7
Ipswich	8.5	2.8	10.8	3.0

The number of children aged between 10 and 14 recorded as occupied at the last census was 146,417, that is, 5·2 per cent. of the total number of children (2,812,433) of the same ages; the occupied boys numbering 97,141, or 6·9 per cent. of the total boys, and the occupied girls 49,276, or 3·5 per cent. of the whole number of girls. Of the boys, 24,870 were messengers, &c.; 23,399 were employed in textile manufactures, of whom 14,387 were in cotton and 6,391 in wool and worsted manufactures; 8,252 were newsboys; 8,121 were engaged in coal-mining (including 5,371 returned as working below ground); and 7,803 were agricultural labourers. These few occupations account for nearly three-fourths of the total, the only other occupations employing more than 1,000 boys being domestic service, boot and shoe making, and hairdressing, while 1,267 boy relatives of farmers and graziers were returned as assisting in the work of the farm. Of the 3,881 boys under 12 years returned as occupied, 1,756 were newsboys and 1,667 messengers; and these occupations, together with the textile manufactures, found employment for the majority of those occupied between 12 and 13.

The only occupation in which there was a serious increase in the numbers employed under 14 years of age was that of newsboys.

More than half the total number of girls under 14 engaged in occupations were employed in textile manufactures, and over a third of the remainder in domestic service. As with boys of the same age, there has been little reduction of employment in textile manufacture, but there has been a large decline in the number employed in domestic service.



THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER.

THE NEW EDUCATION BILL.

THE new Education Bill, introduced by the Minister of Education, Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, to the House of Commons on August 10th, 1917, was framed to repair obvious deficiencies in our educational system, whilst at the same time avoiding controversial points. It was brought in "that the question of education should be considered in the light of educational needs, and those alone." Its proposals may be grouped under six heads:—

- (1) To improve the administrative organisation of education.
- (2) To secure, if possible, for every boy and girl an elementary school life, up to the age of fourteen years, unimpeded

by the competing claims of industry.

- (3) To establish part-time day continuation schools which every young person, under eighteen years of age but not under an obligation to attend an elementary school, shall be compelled to attend unless he or she is undergoing some suitable form of alternative instruction.
- (4) To develop the higher forms of elementary education, and to improve the physical condition of the children and young persons under instruction.
- (5) To consolidate the elementary school grants.

- (6) To make an effective survey of the whole educational provision of the country, with the purpose of bringing private educational institutions into closer and more convenient relation to the national system.

The proposals of the Bill grouped above as (1) and (5) are chiefly concerned with administration. They amplify and, in some directions, consolidate the provisions of the Act of 1902. Under heading (6) power is sought to call upon private schools and educational establishments for particulars of their work. At present "the Board of Education has no official knowledge at all of a very large number of schools and educational institutions of an important kind, and very scanty and precarious knowledge of those that are outside the system of grants."

Democratic interest in the new Bill centres chiefly in the proposals grouped under (2), (3), and (4). These include the provision of nursery schools for children under five years of age, although they recognise that wherever the home is good the child should be encouraged to stay with his (or her) mother up to this age, because, then, sleep and play are far more important than letters. The second proposal involves the abolition of the half-time system, under which some 300,000 children between the ages of twelve and fourteen, chiefly in Lancashire and Yorkshire, divide their working day between the factory and the school. Under the new Bill no exemptions from school would be allowed for children under fourteen

years of age. The Bill further proposes that no child under twelve shall be employed for profit, and that no child under fourteen shall be employed on any day on which he is required to attend school before the close of school hours or after 8 p.m. on that day, or on other days before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m.

The most novel, though not perhaps the most important, provision of the Bill is that, with certain exceptions, every young person under eighteen years of age no longer under any obligation to attend a public elementary school shall attend such continuation school as the local education authority of the area in which he resides may require for a period of 320 hours in the year, or the equivalent of eight hours a week for forty weeks. The main exception is for a young person who has received to the satisfaction of the Board suitable full-time instruction up to the age of sixteen, or has passed an examination equivalent to the matriculation examination of a university. The instruction at the continuation school must be in the daytime, and not on a Sunday or any usual holiday. The proposal, therefore, is that young persons who are not undergoing full-time instruction will be liberated from industrial toil for the equivalent of three half-days per week during forty weeks—two half-days to be spent in school, while one will be a half-holiday. The curriculum of these continuation schools, as outlined by Mr. Fisher, is to be devised to provide physical training as well as to develop the higher forms of elementary education. The Bill makes provision for the setting up of these continuation schools.



Assurance Returns.—The annual summary of assurance companies issued by the Board of Trade deals with returns chiefly for the year 1915. There was a general decrease in new business. "Ordinary" policies issued fell from 262,700 to 243,200 in number, and from £52,951,000 to £44,032,300 in value; in industrial business there was a corresponding decrease from 7,501,200 to 6,668,400, and from £2,472,500 to £1,847,900; and a further shrinkage in the returns of offices established outside the United Kingdom. The premium income of both ordinary and industrial increased, the former from £32,283,800 to £32,401,500, and the latter from £17,982,800 to £18,565,300. In "ordinary" offices claims advanced from £26,646,100 to £29,242,400, and in industrial business from £7,828,800 to £8,949,500. The total funds of British companies at the end of the year stood at £451,859,600.

THE COURSE OF WAGES.

THE figures given in the Board of Trade table below are eminently illustrative of the vain struggle of the wage-earner to keep pace with the increasing cost of living. The fact that the total general increase shown in the table as the outcome of 13 years' effort amounts to 11·2 per cent., or less than 1 per cent. rise per annum, needs no comment. It will be noted that the textile trades have taken the lead in the rise, with agricultural wages coming next in advance, while coal-miners' wages have lagged in the rear of all the rest.

Changes in Rates of Wages.

INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING GENERAL COURSE OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1880-1913.

WAGES IN 1900=100.

End of Year.	BUILDING TRADES (Mean of 74 Rates relating to Bricklayers, Carpenters and Joiners, and Masons).	COAL-MINING (Weighted Percentage changes in Hewers' Wages in Principal Districts).	ENGINEERING (Mean of 36 Rates relating to Fitters, Turners, Ironmoulders, and Pattern-makers).	TEXTILE (Cotton Spinners and Weavers, and Linen and Jute Operatives).	AGRICULTURE.	Mean of Preceding Groups of Trades.	
						Including Agriculture.	Excluding Agriculture.
1880	85·6	61·5	88·0	89·8	90·7	83·1	81·2
1890	86·7	85·9	92·7	95·1	92·0	90·5	90·1
1900	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
1901	100·0	94·0	100·3	100·0	100·7	99·0	98·6
1902	100·0	87·5	100·3	100·0	101·3	97·8	97·0
1903	100·0	84·9	99·9	100·0	101·8	97·3	96·2
1904	100·0	82·3	99·9	100·0	102·0	96·8	95·6
1905	100·0	81·0	100·0	102·7	102·6	97·3	95·9
1906	100·0	83·4	100·8	106·2	102·9	98·7	97·6
1907	100·0	96·3	102·0	108·9	103·2	102·1	101·8
1908	100·0	93·3	101·7	108·9	103·6	101·5	101·0
1909	100·0	89·2	101·3	107·1	104·0	100·3	99·4
1910	100·0	89·6	102·0	107·1	104·7	100·7	99·7
1911	100·0	88·8	103·3	107·1	105·5	100·9	99·8
1912	101·1	93·8	104·2	110·7	107·4	103·4	102·5
1913	104·4	100·1	105·0	111·6	111·2	106·5	105·3

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The highest average increase of agricultural wages has been in Ireland (17·8 per cent.), Scotland coming next with 8½ per cent. rise, and England third with an increase of 9 per cent.

The average earnings of railway servants have increased as follows in the period 1899-1913:—In England, from 25s. 9¼d. to 28s. 6d.; in Scotland, from 22s. 10¾d. to 25s. 1½d.; and in Ireland, from 19s. 4½d. per head to 22s.; whilst for the United Kingdom as a whole the average per head has increased from 25s. 3d. to 27s. 11¼d., or an increase of 2s. 8¼d. per week in the course of 14 years.

Changes in wages have been more or less of an artificial character since the war began, and are no indication of normal conditions. Generally speaking, the war-time increases in the wages rates of cotton operatives have amounted to 35 per cent. up to December 15th, 1917.

METHODS BY WHICH CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES WERE ARRANGED.

The following table shows (among other things) to what extent the sliding-scale system has diminished in favour, as well as a striking increase in the numbers affected by conciliation during the latest years.

Number of Separate Individuals* whose Wages were Changed.									
Year.	Without Strike.				After Strike.				
	Under Sliding Scales.	By Conciliation or Mediation.	By Arbitration.	By other methods (direct arrangement or negotiation, &c.).	Total.	By Conciliation or Mediation.	By Arbitration.	By other methods (direct arrangement or negotiation, &c.).	Total.
ALL TRADES.									
1899...	174,511	364,616	11,636	587,033	1,137,796	1,581	1,452	31,240	34,273
1900...	180,489	469,520	5,827	421,590	1,077,426	1,030	3,780	50,150	54,960
1901...	188,005	507,500	11,508	207,360	914,373	180	667	13,706	14,553
1902...	169,838	542,459	2,600	159,510	874,407	136	1,457	11,206	12,799
1903...	23,119	664,950	15,587	179,194	882,850	265	440	13,043	13,748
1904...	25,628	572,779	232	191,085	789,724	—	111	10,323	10,934
1905...	35,002	306,283	—	333,420	674,705	950	468	12,766	14,184
1906...	62,963	410,929	1,645	584,635	1,060,172	1,919	220	52,849	54,988
1907...	62,212	726,632	5,411	439,885	1,234,140	1,225	—	11,099	12,324
1908...	62,458	581,142	5,596	295,403	944,599	12,477	1,713	4,544	18,734
1909...	37,835	782,745	5,013	175,338	1,000,931	179	170	153,516	153,865
1910...	39,994	380,728	915	117,026	533,663	—	63	10,212	10,275
1911...	54,082	425,768	10,759	276,650	767,259	60,376	25,229	63,502	149,107
1912...	63,200	926,675	16,352	749,585	1,755,812	5,634	4,780	52,014	62,428
1913...	63,986	981,997	11,185	679,099	1,736,267	52,769	24,626	93,216	170,611

* Workpeople whose wages were changed more than once in the same year, and not always by the same method, have been entered in the table only once for that year, the following order of preference being observed, viz.:—(1) Strike; (2) Sliding Scales; (3) Arbitration; (4) Conciliation.

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INCREASE OF WAGES IN TWENTY-ONE YEARS.

Let us now turn from the percentages of wage increases to the increase in wages recorded in terms of British currency for a period of twenty years past, in which the years 1896-1900, 1906-7, and 1910-15 figured as periods of rising wages, and the years 1901-5 and 1908-9 as those of the fall. The total amount of increase or decrease in weekly rates recorded during each of these periods and in 1916 is shown in the following table:—

Period.	Number of Years Included.	Net Increase or Decrease in Weekly Rates.	
		Increase in Periods of Rising Wages.	Decrease in Periods of Falling Wages.
1896-1900	5	£ 437,641	£ —
1901-5	5	—	228,909
1906-7	2	258,809	—
1908-9	2	—	128,093
1910-15	6	1,058,000	—
1916	1	595,000	—

From the foregoing figures it will be seen that the net increase in wages during the twenty-one years works out at something less than £2,000,000 weekly, so far as the workpeople known to the Board of Trade are concerned. It may further be noted that the increases amounting to £677,700 in 1915 and to £595,000 in 1916 have been the greatest recorded for single years during the period in question, as may be seen by the fact that the greatest increases previous to the war were £208,588 in 1900 and £200,912 in 1907. These increases for 1915 are exclusive of changes in the earnings of police and of Government employés, whereas for previous years the figures are inclusive. It should also be stated that the figures for 1915 and 1916, whilst inclusive of war bonus, are exclusive of actual increases gained by working overtime and so forth and so on, as the Board of Trade is careful to point out.

THE COURSE OF WAGES IN WAR-TIME.

The upward trend of wages (due mainly to soaring food prices) during the three years 1915-17 is indicated in the following table, which shows a total increase of wages (down to the end of September,

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1917) amounting to £2,566,200 for the trades in the list. And what does it all amount to? Merely a 13s. 6d. weekly increase per worker (*i.e.*, 3s. 10d. in 1915, 3s. 6d. in 1916, and 6s. 2d. in 1917), while the cost of food alone has advanced by the end of 1917 by 105 per cent.; and yet there are people who will complacently tell us that the advance in wages is the cause of high prices.

Group of Trades.	Number of Workpeople whose Rates of Wages were Reported as Changed in—			Net Amount of Increase in the Wages of Those Affected as Compared with the Previous Year.		
	1915.	1916.	1917. Jan.-Sept.	1915.	1916.	1917. Jan.-Sept.
				£	£	£
Building	115,500	208,000	190,000	16,200	33,700	45,400
Coal-mining	886,500	860,000	1,007,000	277,800	226,500	473,000
Iron and Other Mining...	25,000	22,000	25,500	8,900	8,100	7,500
Quarrying	12,000	14,000	10,000	1,400	2,500	2,200
Pig Iron Manufacture...	26,000	33,500	22,500	7,900	9,000	5,600
Iron & Steel Manufacture	100,500	97,500	90,000	28,700	32,600	19,200
Engineering & Shipbuilding	715,000	560,000	1,022,000	129,600	86,200	355,600
Other Metal	167,500	125,000	193,000	28,600	23,000	62,700
Textile	621,000	840,000	817,000	54,600	75,500	134,000
Clothing	103,500	115,000	168,000	14,700	15,400	30,500
Transport	178,000	160,000	161,000	41,300	32,600	51,300
Paper, Printing, &c.	55,000	75,000	81,000	5,700	10,000	15,500
Chemical, Glass, Brick, and Pottery	119,000	94,000	100,000	14,400	11,800	31,600
Miscellaneous	213,500	96,000	167,000	31,000	15,600	42,100
Local Authority Services.	132,000	100,000	81,000	16,900	12,500	17,300
Total	3,470,000	3,400,000	4,135,000	677,700	595,000	1,293,500

N.B.—The Board of Trade figures given above are subject to revision.

It is also officially estimated that a total of about 1½ million other employes received advances amounting in the aggregate to £250,000 per week in 1916, in which year agricultural labourers received further increases and seamen further bonuses, whilst to railway employes the weekly bonuses of 5s. to adults and 2s. 6d. to boys, granted in 1915, were increased to 10s. and 5s. per week respectively in 1916. In the case of workpeople employed by the Admiralty and certain War Department establishments increases of about 3s. per week were also granted. The war bonuses of postal servants given in 1915 were also increased in the following year, to bring them in line with the war bonuses to civil servants granted in 1916.

DISPUTES.

Though disputes between capital and labour have been a characteristic of war-time as of peace-time, nevertheless the figures for 1916 show a diminution of disputes involving stoppages of work as compared with the previous year. In both years, however, the

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disputes in the coal-mining and textile industries have been the most conspicuous in regard to the numbers affected, as well as to the aggregate duration. Herewith are the figures:—

Group of Trades.	1915.			1916.		
	Number of Disputes.	Number of Work-people in- volved.	Aggregate Duration in Work- ing Days of all Dis- putes in progress.	Number of Dis- putes.	Number of Work- people in- volved.	Aggregate Duration in Work- ing Days of all Dis- putes in progress.
Building	66	15,935	135,204	77	8,071	172,400
Coal-mining	79	297,801	1,640,899	61	57,018	287,400
Other Mining & Quarrying	6	337	15,550	8	1,182	16,500
Engineering	97	24,468	227,768	58	52,068	263,300
Shipbuilding	46	6,839	49,741	26	20,980	74,700
Other Metal	48	15,403	88,199	20	3,643	8,300
Textile	69	33,107	373,451	58	57,572	1,156,900
Clothing	40	5,525	27,629	36	13,655	154,700
Transport	86	26,600	177,522	53	34,130	140,800
Other Trades & Employés of Public Authorities . . .	169	26,556	302,171	128	20,057	306,900
Total	706	452,571	3,038,134	525	268,376	2,581,900



UNEMPLOYMENT.

THE manner in which the workers' livelihood is made the sport of the eternal fluctuations in trade (which are the inevitable outcome of the anti-social organisation of industry) receives a pointed demonstration in the trade union statistics of unemployed. In the absence of any scientific co-ordination of production and consumption, of supply and demand, under a mercenary regime in which individual self-interest is the predominating principle, slump follows boom in unceasing succession, and bad trade follows good as regularly as night follows day. In all industrial countries, free trade and protectionist alike, the effects of the "go-as-you-please" system conducted for private gain results in a large army of workers turned adrift every few years; while the existence of a percentage of unemployed, even in organised trades at the best of times, points to the waste of manhood and life involved in the existence of a reserve army of labour which is one of the characteristic products of a mercenary regime. For incontrovertible evidence of all this, one has only to glance at the figures recording the low and high-water marks of unemployment in the trade union organisations for nearly half a century past.

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GENERAL PERCENTAGE OF UNEMPLOYED FOR ALL UNIONS
INCLUDED IN OFFICIAL RETURNS.

{ 1872 0·9	{ 1890 2·1	1908 7·8
{ 1879 11·4	{ 1893 7·5	1913 2·1
{ 1882 2·3	{ 1899 2·0	1914 3·3
{ 1886 10·2	{ 1904 6·0	1915 1·1
		1916 0·4

A still more striking object-lesson is furnished by the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal group of trade unions, in which the excessive proportion of unemployment for the same years is shown as follows:—

AVERAGE ANNUAL PERCENTAGE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE
ENGINEERING, SHIPBUILDING, AND METAL UNIONS.

{ 1872 0·9	{ 1890 2·2	1906 4·1
{ 1879 15·3	{ 1893 11·4	1909 13·0
{ 1882 2·3	{ 1899 2·4	1913 2·2
{ 1886 13·5	{ 1904 8·4	

As featuring the general permanence of an unemployed army, the official figures since the last century may be allowed to speak for themselves.

PERCENTAGE UNEMPLOYED IN TRADE UNIONS, 1899–1914.

Year.	General Percentage for all Unions included in Returns.	Mean Annual Percentages Returned as Unemployed in—				
		Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metal.	Building.*	Woodwork- ing and Furnishing.	Printing and Book- binding.	All Other Trades included in the Returns.†
1899.....	2·0	2·4	1·2	2·1	3·9	1·2
1900.....	2·5	2·6	2·6	2·8	4·2	1·6
1901.....	3·3	3·8	3·9	3·7	4·5	2·1
1902.....	4·0	5·5	4·0	4·1	4·6	1·9
1903.....	4·7	6·6	4·4	4·7	4·4	2·5
1904.....	6·0	8·4	7·3	6·8	4·7	3·0
1905.....	5·0	6·6	8·0	5·8	5·1	2·3
1906.....	3·6	4·1	6·9	4·8	4·5	1·9
1907.....	3·7	4·9	7·3	4·6	4·3	1·6
1908.....	7·8	12·5	11·6	8·3	5·5	2·9
1909.....	7·7	13·0	11·7	7·6	5·6	2·6
1910.....	4·7	6·8	8·3	5·4	4·9	2·2
1911.....	3·0	3·4	4·2	3·3	5·1	2·1
1912.....	3·2‡	3·6	3·7	3·1	5·2	2·1
1913.....	2·1	2·2	3·3	2·4	4·0	1·4
1914.....	3·3	3·3	3·3	4·1	4·5	2·9

* Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners only.

† The Trades included are Coal-mining, Textiles, Clothing, Paper, Leather, Glass, Pottery, and Tobacco.

‡ Affected by the National Coal Dispute.

Labour Exchanges.

Board of Trade Labour Exchanges were founded for the purpose of finding employment for those out of work. The question is: How far have they answered their purpose? The answer is furnished by the labour statistics, which show that to two-thirds of the applicants the Labour Exchanges have been of no use whatever.

SUMMARY OF WORK DONE DURING 1911, 1912, AND 1913.*

		Registra- tions.	Individuals Registered.	Vacancies Notified.	Vacancies Filled.	Individuals Given Work.
Men.....	1911	1,323,162	978,211	446,035	362,670	268,794
	1912	1,594,236	1,025,332	626,756	513,649	336,341
	1913	2,088,735	1,267,077	714,270	566,150	390,141
Women	1911	414,459	307,641	178,446	136,409	97,598
	1912	518,775	360,873	226,276	168,555	118,650
	1913	532,060	351,755	270,325	199,395	133,424
Boys ...	1911	185,108	138,684	106,920	77,881	64,752
	1912	200,403	146,434	130,601	88,086	70,565
	1913	186,574	137,668	143,715	90,387	74,535
Girls	1911	117,718	88,833	57,208	44,450	38,066
	1912	151,890	110,948	78,941	57,940	48,153
	1913	158,524	115,171	94,518	65,921	54,206
Total	1911	2,040,447	1,513,369	788,609	621,410	469,210
	1912	2,465,304	1,643,587	1,062,574	828,230	573,709
	1913	2,965,893	1,871,671	1,222,828	921,853	652,306

NOTE.—The number of Exchanges open was 261 at the end of 1911, 413 at the end of 1912, and 422 at the end of 1913.

* Dock Labourers, Cloth Porters, and Cotton Porters are not included.

PERCENTAGE OF INDIVIDUALS REGISTERED FOR WHOM WORK WAS FOUND DURING 1911, 1912, AND 1913.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1911.....	27·5	31·7	46·7	42·9	31·0
1912.....	32·8	32·9	48·2	43·4	34·9
1913.....	30·8	37·9	54·1	47·1	34·9

How far the Labour Exchanges still are from providing a solution of the unemployed problem is shown by the latest figures available at the time this volume goes to press.

The number of workpeople on the registers of the Employment Exchanges (383 in number) at some time or other during the four weeks ended November 9th, 1917, was 375,189 (men, 121,592; women, 196,554; boys, 29,006; girls, 28,037), a daily average of 15,633, compared with 16,118 in the corresponding period of 1916. These figures comprise workers in professional, commercial, and clerical, as well as in industrial occupations.

The number of vacancies filled was 128,663, a daily average of 5,361, compared with 5,296 in the four weeks ended November 10th, 1916.

Distress Committees.

Distress Committees, like Labour Exchanges, fail to stand the test of results. Their ineffectiveness may be gauged by the figures for 1912-13, which show that of the total applications received (43,381), close on 6,000 were left uninvestigated, while 50 per cent. (or one-half the total number of applicants) received no benefit whatever, either in the shape of work or in assistance to emigration or migration. Under such circumstances the decline in the number of applications can cause no surprise; but, on the other hand, there is legitimate reason for astonishment in the reduction of the committees by half in the course of five years, a circumstance showing the negation of any effort to rise above the 50 per cent. standard of effectiveness.

**WORK OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN ENGLAND AND WALES
AND IN SCOTLAND IN 1909-14.***

[Compiled from the Annual Reports on Distress Committees issued by the Local Government Boards for England and Wales and for Scotland.]

	England and Wales.		Scotland.	
	1909-10.	1913-14.	1909-10.	1913-14.
	No.	No.	No.	No.
Committees in Operation.....	116	59	12	3
Applications Received	127,066	24,300	19,876	1,043
Applications Investigated.....	101,626	20,246	16,911	998
Applications Considered Eligible.....	81,749	16,349	13,605	856
Applicants Provided with Work	58,603	9,803	8,763	586
Persons Assisted to Emigrate†	1,702	1,950	41	—
Persons Assisted to move to Another Area‡	515	131	84	—
Ages of Applicants:—§	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Under 30 Years	26·4	20·3	31·4	16·6
30 Years and Under 60 Years	68·7	72·1	63·3	70·8
60 Years and Over.....	4·9	7·6	5·3	12·6
Occupations of Applicants:—§				
General or Casual Labour.....	47·0	50·2	36·4	31·4
Building Trades	19·8	18·2	16·2	10·6
Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Metal Trades	9·2	4·0	23·3	24·5
Transport and Conveyance of Men, Goods, and Messages.....	7·0	10·3	24·1	33·5
Other Trades.....	17·0	17·3		
Cost of Work Provided	£ 202,806	£ 65,655	£ 49,428	£ 9,565
Expenditure in Aid of Emigration or Removal of Persons to Another Area	17,175	20,847	120	—
Other Expenditure	53,690	26,451	10,056	1,862
Total Expenditure	273,671	112,953	59,604	11,427

* Year ended March 31st for England and Wales, and May 15th for Scotland.

† Applicants and their dependents.

‡ The figures for England and Wales include, and those for Scotland exclude, the number of persons dependent upon the applicants assisted.

§ Based on the number of applicants whose cases were considered eligible in the case of England and Wales, and on the total number of applicants in the case of Scotland.

VALUE OF THE WORLD'S FISHERY PRODUCTS.*

	£		£
†United States (including Alaska)	13,881,943	Italy	737,800
United States Insular Possessions	3,160,000	Denmark	634,560
Canada (1910-11)	5,993,087	Austria-Hungary	298,400
Newfoundland (1911)	2,359,787	Belgium	243,560
South and Central America and West Indies.....	2,607,000	All other European countries	960,000
England and Wales (1911)	8,952,976	Japan (1910).....	15,000,000
Scotland (1911)	2,964,044	India, Ceylon, Persia, Asiatic Turkey, Arabia, Burmah, and East Indies	4,000,000
Ireland (1910)	365,605	China, Korea, and all other Asiatic countries	6,800,000
France	5,677,630	Africa.....	1,000,000
Russia	6,000,000	Australia, New Zealand, and all other Pacific Islands.....	1,112,200
Norway	1,740,940		
Spain	1,520,000	Total	88,653,622
Holland	953,200		
Portugal	948,880		
Germany	742,040		

* Estimated. † United States figures are for 1908; Alaska for 1912.



WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND NATIONAL INSURANCE.

I. Workmen's Compensation.

THE progressive stages of workmen's compensation have been the Employers' Liability Act of 1880, the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1897, and the Amending Acts of 1900 and 1906; the fact that it took practically half a century of agitation to secure an inadequate measure of elementary justice serving to proclaim the idiosyncrasy of a Legislature dominated by the monied interests, who only with the greatest reluctance and tardiness consented to the making of workmen's compensation a first charge on industry. The totals paid in a series of industries in 1913 figure out thus:—

	£
For Accident Disablement	2,636,387
„ Fatal Accidents	590,865
„ Disease Disablement	130,251
„ Fatal Diseases.....	4,147
	<hr/>
	3,361,650

See Table on next page.

II. National Insurance.

By the Act of 1911 the State became the organiser of an industrial insurance scheme which, in counterbalancing the shortcomings of the Workmen's Compensation Act and of voluntary provident schemes in some measure, and in making accident and unemployment insurance a definite rule and a legal obligation, proclaimed another victory over the policy of *laissez-faire*—a victory for the ideal of the State as a constructive organ for the common weal.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1913.

INDUSTRY.	Number of Persons Employed.	Total Compensation Paid.	Accidents.				Industrial Diseases.				
			Disablement.		Fatal Cases.		Fatal Cases.		Disablement.		
			Com-pensation.	Number of Cases.	Com-pensation.	Com-pensation.	Compen-sation.	Cases.	Cases.	Compen-sation.	
SHIPPING—											
Steam Vessels	240,036	£ 178,666	£ 102,004	7,599	£ 76,662	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sailing Vessels	18,236	16,988	7,045	592	9,943	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Shipping	258,272	195,654	109,049	8,191	86,605	—	—	—	—	—	—
FACTORIES—											
Cotton	591,753	84,458	79,993	13,863	4,428	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wool, Worsted, Shoddy	280,662	23,712	23,073	3,639	2,253	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Textiles	186,499	19,885	18,766	3,481	1,119	39	—	—	—	—	—
Wood	140,708	56,525	50,588	5,969	1,519	154	—	—	—	—	—
Metals (Extraction, &c.)	436,370	226,615	195,212	39,273	28,623	522	—	—	—	—	—
Engine and Ship Building	309,966	228,576	194,912	32,486	32,568	300	—	—	—	—	—
Other Metal Work	885,800	273,060	244,310	49,667	26,241	140	—	—	—	—	—
Paper and Printing	318,187	41,824	38,294	4,927	3,347	—	—	—	—	—	—
China and Earthenware	69,556	16,107	7,726	1,428	1,175	1,772	—	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	2,123,184	365,617	309,199	54,196	51,286	931	—	—	—	—	—
Total Factories	5,342,625	1,338,379	1,162,073	208,949	156,430	3,858	25	709	16,018	—	—
DOCKS											
MINES											
QUARRIES											
CONSTRUCTIONAL WORK											
RAILWAYS—											
Clerical Staff	76,553	983	331	74	600	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Railway Servants	391,378	196,738	130,494	26,370	65,513	229	—	—	—	—	—
Total Railways	467,931	197,721	130,825	26,444	66,113	229	—	—	—	—	—
Grand Total	7,509,353	3,361,650	2,636,387	468,687	590,865	4,147	27	8,233	130,251	—	—

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HEALTH INSURANCE.

In the matter of health insurance the advance is revealed by the superiority in scope to the Workmen's Compensation Act (both in the range of workers and accidents embraced), and by the provision of "sick benefit" (10s. for men and 7s. 6d. for women) and the institution of "panel" doctors, and by the provision of a definite fund to which workers, employers, and State jointly contribute, and for which "approved" societies are the established channels of distribution. Meantime, the limited schedule of "insured" industries and the exiguous proportions of the "benefit" given, and so forth, serve to show the blots on the scheme which need wiping out.

The approximate distribution of members of "approved" societies in the United Kingdom in April, 1913, was as follows:—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Friendly Societies, with Branches	2,468,119	665,358	3,133,477
Other Friendly Societies	2,456,747	931,719	3,388,466
Trade Unions	1,233,570	233,010	1,466,580
Industrial Assurance Co.'s and Collecting Societies ..	3,115,270	2,173,291	5,288,561
Employers' Provident Funds	87,238	23,460	110,698
	9,360,944	4,026,838	13,387,782

Of the total membership of 13,387,782, England and Wales figured for 11,216,789, Scotland for 1,454,465, and Ireland for 716,528.

NATIONAL HEALTH INSURANCE FUND.

The receipts and payments of the above fund, from July 15th, 1912. to January 11th, 1914, are set forth in the figures for the United Kingdom:—

RECEIPTS.	£	PAYMENTS.	£
From Sale of Health Insurance Stamps—		Issues to—	
At Post Offices	24,693,934	Approved Societies for Sick- ness and Maternity Bene- fits and for Administration Expenses (less refunds)...	11,280,476
„ Board of Trade Labour Exchanges	191,586	Approved Societies for In- vestment	902,248
To Army Council	88,957	Insurance Committees for Sanatorium and Medical Benefits and for Adminis- tration Expenses	5,554,188
„ Army (India)	65,888	Deposit Contributors for Sickness and Maternity Benefits (less refunds)...	18,405
„ Other Government De- partments	118,427	Navy and Army Insurance Fund for Sickness and Maternity Benefits (less refunds)	2,567
„ Employer Depositors— Quarterly and Weekly Stamping	2,371,195	Employer Depositors—Quar- terly and Weekly Stamping —Deposits repaid	17,044
„ Employers' Sales of High Value Stamps	3,868	Refunds on account of Health Insurance Stamps returned to Commissioners	14,794
„ Sundry Persons by In- surance Commissioners ..	2,419	For purchase of Investments on behalf of Approved Societies.	35,441
Admiralty Contributions on be- half of Sailors and Marines ..	108,098	Other Payments	35,151
Mercantile Marine Exempt Per- sons	14,682	Balance in hands of National Debt Commissioners—	
Exchequer Grants	5,765,250	For Investment Account ..	1,685,942
Other Receipts	1,002	For Temporary Investment ..	13,627,528
		Balance at Bank	251,522
Total	33,425,306	Total	33,425,306

Of the total amount of £33,425,306, England and Wales figured for £28,403,592, Scotland for £3,688,084, and Ireland for £1,333,630.

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UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE.

Part II. of the Insurance Act of 1911, like all first essays, began with the minimum, leaving the future to take care of itself. A limited range of industries (building, construction of works, shipbuilding, engineering and ironfounding, construction of vehicles, and sawmilling) was brought under the scheme of compulsory insurance for manual workers, who were made joint contributors along with the employers, the State joining in with a contribution of a weekly 1d. per head, and standing the cost of administration of the fund, from which the Board of Trade became authorised to pay benefit at the rate of 7s. per week, or 1s. 2d. per day, to workers whose qualifications accorded with the terms of the Insurance Act.

The first thing to strike one in going through the Board of Trade statistics of insured industries is the immense amount of labour lying fallow during the course of the year, as shown by the fact that during the period from January 1st to July 11th, 1913, the number of days of unemployment totalled up to 7,291,968, a figure whose significance is shown by the fact that it is equivalent to 1,000 men lying idle for 20 years less a fraction. As this is the loss in the insured industries for part of a year only, one may form some idea of the labour lost to the nation in the course of a quarter of a century, and of which no small part might be saved by an organisation of industry which placed social well-being first.

The second thing to strike the attention is the contrast between the days of unemployment and the days for which benefit is paid, as shown during the period above mentioned by the payment of benefit for 4,100,252 days only, as compared with the total of 7,291,968 days of unemployment, which means that 56·2 per cent. of the unemployed time came within benefit and that 43·8 per cent. was left out in the cold. For verification the reader may glance at the Board of Trade figures:—

Industry Insured.	Total Days of Unemployment.	Days for which Benefit was Paid.
Building.....	4,260,319 2,541,868
Construction of Works	308,594 145,414
Shipbuilding	637,709 331,416
Engineering and Ironfounding.....	1,581,149 813,120
Construction of Vehicles	395,625 211,231
Sawmilling.....	30,220 15,413
Other Insured Workpeople.....	78,352 41,790
	7,291,968 4,100,252

The particulars with regard to the 43·8 per cent. of unemployed deriving no benefit are recorded as follows:—

Not on Benefit—Waiting days, 25·5 per cent.; benefit exhausted, 3·1 per cent.

Not Qualified owing to—Failure to sign, as required, 6·4 per cent.; trade disputes, 1·0; sickness, 1·4; other causes, 6·4.

From this it appears that the exclusion from benefit is mainly due to the limitations of the scheme.

The gap between unemployment and benefit is further outlined by the figures recording an average of 22·9 days of unemployment in each spell in which benefit was paid, whereas the average number of days of benefit was only 15·9.

The weekly average of payments of benefit for the six months ending July 13th, 1913, numbered 30,980, and the weekly average paid £9,458. During the first half of 1914 the weekly number of payments averaged 36,388, and the average weekly amount £10,452.

WOMEN AND THE FRANCHISE.

THE Representation of the People Bill, as amended in Committee and reported to the House of Commons on November 8th, 1917, proposes to give women the Parliamentary vote. The conditions, as set forth in clause 4 of the Bill, are that a woman shall be entitled to be registered as a Parliamentary elector for a constituency (other than a University constituency) if she (*a*) has attained the age of thirty years; and (*b*) is not subject to any legal incapacity; and (*c*) is entitled to be registered as a local government elector, or is the wife of a husband so registered.

The qualifications for registration as a local government elector are the same for a woman as for a man with respect to the qualifying period as owner or tenant of land or premises.

The qualifications for registration in a University constituency are that a woman shall have attained the age of thirty years, and would be entitled to be so registered if she were a man.



PAUPERISM.

AN economic system which produces "destitutes" and millionaires, and which inflicts upon a legion of victims the stigma and demoralisation of pauperism, may fairly be judged by its fruits just as much as the fiscal system which relieves excessive wealth from bearing the whole cost of destitution, and transfers the whole charge of maintaining the social derelicts on to the shoulders of the community at large.

The dimensions of the grand army of paupers in England and Wales may be realised from the following statistics, in which the increase in numbers and in proportion to the population was writ large till the establishment of old age pensions in 1911 abolished the pauper stigma in the case of a section of destitutes.

A striking testimony to the effects of the out-of-works system, which is one of the cardinal features of the capitalist age, is the increasing number and proportion of able-bodied adult paupers. From 90,000 and odd in the early years of the century the number has grown to 120,000 and over—figures which signify an increase in proportion to the population as well.

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Number of Paupers—England and Wales.

MEAN NUMBER* OF PAUPERS (EXCLUDING VAGRANTS AND INSANE).

[*Compiled from the Annual Reports and the Half-yearly Statements of the Local Government Board.*]

Year ended March.	Indoor Paupers.		Outdoor Paupers.		Total.	
	Mean Number.	Ratio per 1,000 of Estimated Population.	Mean Number.	Ratio per 1,000 of Estimated Population.	Mean Number.	Ratio per 1,000 of Estimated Population.
ALL CLASSES EXCEPT VAGRANTS AND INSANE.						
1900	188,423	5·9	500,214	15·7	688,505	21·6
1901	186,312	5·8	489,498	15·2	675,727	21·0
1902	195,528	6·0	497,500	15·3	692,875	21·2
1903	203,604	6·2	506,029	15·4	709,473	21·5
1904	211,019	6·3	511,441	15·4	722,070	21·7
1905	222,217	6·6	542,891	16·1	764,589	22·7
1906	229,724	6·8	545,141	16·0	774,209	22·8
1907	232,329	6·8	537,449	15·6	769,160	22·4
1908	237,549	6·8	535,452	15·4	772,346	22·3
1909	248,516	7·1	546,302	15·6	793,851	22·6
1910	256,523	7·2	534,933	15·1	790,496	22·3
1911	256,100†	7·2	503,181†	14·1	758,278†	21·2
1912	248,035	6·9	403,552	11·2	650,626	18·0
1913	245,638	6·7	407,018	11·1	652,528	17·9
1914	234,510	6·4	382,734	10·4	617,128	16·7
ADULTS, ABLE-BODIED.						
1900	34,387	1·1	59,268	1·8	93,655	2·9
1901	33,580	1·0	57,553	1·8	91,133	2·8
1902	35,095	1·1	59,586	1·8	94,681	2·9
1903	37,561	1·1	61,393	1·9	98,954	3·0
1904	39,991	1·2	62,509	1·9	102,500	3·1
1905	43,987	1·3	72,379	2·2	116,366	3·5
1906	46,547	1·4	70,036	2·0	116,583	3·4
1907	45,384	1·3	66,119	1·9	111,503	3·2
1908	46,135	1·3	65,040	1·9	111,175	3·2
1909	50,420	1·4	71,742	2·1	122,162	3·5
1910	53,797	1·5	72,832	2·1	126,629	3·6
1911	52,889	1·5	71,383	2·0	124,272	3·5
1912	50,884	1·4	69,333	1·9	120,217	3·3
1913	49,957	1·4	†	†	†	†
1914	44,161	1·2	†	†	†	†

NOTE.—Paupers who received both indoor and outdoor relief on the same day are not counted twice in the total.

* The mean numbers shown in this table for any year are the means of the numbers of paupers relieved on January 1st of that year, and on July 1st preceding.

† A number of paupers, especially outdoor paupers, ceased to be dependent on Poor Relief in 1911 in consequence of the partial removal of the pauper disqualification for old age pensioners. The number of persons formerly indoor paupers who became pensioners in January, 1911, was 5,077, while the

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corresponding number of persons formerly outdoor paupers was 117,338. The total number of indoor paupers over 70 years of age decreased from 57,701 at January 1st, 1910, to 49,370 at January 1st, 1912, while at January 4th, 1913, it was 49,207. The corresponding number of outdoor paupers decreased from 138,223 at January 1st, 1910, to 9,530 at January 1st, 1912, and to 8,563 at January 4th, 1913. [From a Return issued by the Local Government Board in August, 1913 (Cd. 7015).]

‡ These particulars cannot be given for 1912-13 and 1913-14.

Cost of Poor Relief—England and Wales.

[Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Local Government Board and from later information specially supplied by the Local Government Board.]

COST per INDOOR PAUPER and per OUTDOOR PAUPER (excluding expenditure out of loans), calculated on the MEAN NUMBERS of INDOOR and OUTDOOR PAUPERS and the TOTAL EXPENDITURE on INDOOR and OUTDOOR RELIEF exclusively, in each of the thirteen years ended MARCH, 1901 to 1913.

Year ended March.	London.			England and Wales, excluding London.				England and Wales.				
	Indoor.		Outdoor.	Indoor.		Outdoor.		Indoor.		Outdoor.		
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1901	35	11 7 ³ / ₄	7	18 1 ³ / ₄	24	2 7 ¹ / ₄	6	10 11	27	12 10	6	13 0 ³ / ₄
1902	36	16 7	7	19 4 ³ / ₄	24	7 6	6	12 3 ¹ / ₄	28	2 0	6	14 6
1903	37	3 1 ¹ / ₂	7	17 3 ¹ / ₂	24	8 0	6	14 6	28	3 6	6	15 5
1904	37	18 11	8	0 2 ¹ / ₄	25	2 1	6	14 1 ¹ / ₂	29	18 3 ¹ / ₄	6	16 3 ¹ / ₄
1905	37	16 3	7	17 2 ³ / ₄	24	14 8 ¹ / ₄	6	17 1 ¹ / ₂	28	10 11 ³ / ₄	6	18 10 ¹ / ₄
1906	36	6 0	8	1 7 ¹ / ₂	24	5 8 ¹ / ₂	7	0 8 ³ / ₄	27	15 10 ¹ / ₂	7	2 7
1907	34	9 11 ¹ / ₄	8	4 11 ¹ / ₄	24	5 3 ¹ / ₄	6	16 4 ³ / ₄	27	5 0 ¹ / ₂	6	18 9
1908	34	2 2 ¹ / ₄	8	3 4 ³ / ₄	24	15 10 ³ / ₄	6	18 8 ³ / ₄	27	9 11 ³ / ₄	7	0 10
1909	34	6 4 ³ / ₄	8	6 8	24	14 3	6	19 9 ³ / ₄	27	8 9 ³ / ₄	7	2 0 ³ / ₄
1910	33	16 11 ¹ / ₂	8	12 2 ¹ / ₄	23	15 8 ¹ / ₄	7	2 2 ¹ / ₂	26	10 8 ¹ / ₄	7	4 8 ¹ / ₄
1911	34	19 5 ¹ / ₄	8	12 9 ¹ / ₂	25	5 8	7	3 6 ¹ / ₂	27	19 1	7	5 11 ³ / ₄
1912	36	18 7 ¹ / ₄	8	15 1 ¹ / ₂	26	17 3 ¹ / ₄	7	1 11	29	13 0 ¹ / ₂	7	4 7
1913	39	17 11 ³ / ₄	9	1 0 ³ / ₄	29	17 0	7	7 4 ¹ / ₂	32	12 10 ³ / ₄	7	10 1 ³ / ₄

NOTE.—From 20·7 to 25·6 per cent. of the total expenditure on relief during the years 1901-12 is not divisible between indoor and outdoor relief. The figures on which the calculations for the year ended March, 1913, are based include certain items of expenditure which, in former years, were not divisible between indoor and outdoor relief. If that additional expenditure were not apportioned to indoor and outdoor relief it is estimated that the several figures for 1913 would be approximately: £38. 5s. 5¹/₂d.; £8. 16s. 0¹/₄d.; £27. 19s. 5¹/₂d.; £7. 5s. 3¹/₄d.; £30. 16s. 9d.; £7. 7s. 10d.

With regard to pauperism during the war period it is officially stated that, as compared with December, 1915, the total number of paupers (indoor and outdoor) relieved on one day in December, 1916, in 35 selected urban areas in the United Kingdom showed a decrease to the number of 25,997 (or 8·6 per cent.); and that pauperism in June, 1917, as compared with the corresponding month in the previous year, showed a reduction to the number of 20,849 persons, or 7·4 per cent.

ILLEGITIMACY.

SINCE the middle of last century the illegitimacy figures show a striking reduction, 43 illegitimates per 1,000 births in England and Wales being the record for the period 1911-15, as compared with 67 per 1,000 in the years 1846-50.

In 1915 the illegitimate births in England and Wales numbered 36,245, as compared with 37,329 in 1914, or 1,084 fewer than the year in which the war began. To quote the Registrar-General's report: "In 1915 the rate per 1,000 total births was 44.5, and compared with the rate in the quinquennium 1876-80 this shows a fall of 6.3 per cent. The rate per 1,000 total population (1914) was 0.98, which, compared again with the rate in 1876-80, shows a fall of 41.7 per cent. Finally, the rate taken in proportion to the unmarried and widowed female population aged from 15 to 45 years was 7.4 per 1,000, a fall of 48.6 per cent. from that obtaining in 1876-80. This latter rate is the lowest yet recorded, but owing to the fact that the legitimate rate has fallen still more, the proportion of illegitimate to total births is the highest since 1889."

Some idea of the extent of illegitimacy in different classes of area and parts of the country may be gathered from the following table, but it must be borne in mind that statement in proportion to total population minimises the excess of illegitimacy in the rural districts.

ILLEGITIMATE BIRTH-RATES (1915) PER 1,000 TOTAL
POPULATION (1914).

	North.	Midlands.	South.	Wales.	England and Wales.
London.....	—	—	0.91	—	0.91
County Boroughs	1.06	0.99	1.13	0.92	1.04
Other Urban Districts	0.91	0.94	0.98	0.99	0.94
Rural Districts.....	1.07	1.00	0.86	1.18	1.00
All Areas	1.01	0.97	0.94	1.04	0.98

INFANT MORTALITY AMONGST ILLEGITIMATES.

The death-rate of illegitimate infants is double that of legitimate. In 1906-10 the death-rate among legitimates averaged 112.4 per 1,000 births, but with illegitimates the proportion was 224 per 1,000. In 1911-15 the average death-rate of legitimate infants was 105 per 1,000 births; amongst illegitimate infants the death-rate figured at 210. The figures bear cogent witness to the inability to devote as much care in the latter case as in the former.

THE HOUSING QUESTION.

THE housing standard of the mass of the people may be taken as an unerring token of the standard of civilisation. How it fares with the masses in England and Wales is pretty clearly indicated in the tables annexed, the figures of which disclose the fact that 2,580,000 and odd people live in tenements of less than three rooms; that seven millions and odd are housed in tenements of less than four rooms, and that altogether over 15½ millions of the population live in tenements comprising fewer than five rooms; that is, 43 per cent. of the total, as compared with 40 per cent. at the previous census. While the numbers living in one-roomed and two-roomed tenements have been very slightly reduced, the numbers occupying three-roomed and four-roomed tenements show a considerable increase in the course of ten years; the net result being that the proportion housed below the standard of spacial comfort and convenience is actually larger than at the census of 1901.

TENEMENTS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

	1891.	1901.	1911.
1 room	286,946	251,667	254,710
2 rooms	697,322	658,208	660,472
3 "	756,756	779,992	1,107,873
4 "	1,464,681	1,596,664	1,981,428
5 " or more	2,925,296	3,750,342	4,000,807
	6,131,001	7,036,868	8,005,290

POPULATION LIVING IN SUCH TENEMENTS.

	1891.	1901.	1911.
1 room	640,410	507,763	482,722
2 rooms	2,416,617	2,158,644	2,098,092
3 "	3,227,464	3,186,640	4,429,119
4 "	6,814,069	7,130,062	8,549,706
5 " or more	15,903,965	19,544,734	20,510,853
	29,002,525	32,527,848	36,070,492

THE COUNTIES.

In the industrial counties it is the towns which are the worst offenders in the matter of overcrowding; in the agricultural counties it is the rural

areas. Thus, for example, the proportion of population living more than two to a room is 41 per 1,000 in the rural districts of Bedfordshire, against 21 in the urban, in Cambridgeshire 54 against 21, in East Suffolk 44 against 19, and in Wiltshire 58 against 30; while in Monmouthshire the proportions of population living more than two in a room are 87 and 41 per 1,000 in the urban and rural districts respectively; in Northumberland, 304 and 252; in Staffordshire, 97 and 61; and in the West Riding, 109 and 83.

The gross neglect with regard to housing conditions in county areas may be realised by the statement in the last census report that: "Judged by the figures for tenements of less than five rooms, 25 of the 62 administrative counties showed no improvement in the matter of overcrowding, as indicated by the proportion of population living more than two in a room; while in London, Cumberland, and Radnorshire, in spite of a decreasing population and an increasing number of inhabited buildings, the figures show an increase in the proportion of overcrowding. Where improvement is recorded it is, in the majority of cases, very slight, but it is satisfactory to find that the returns from Durham, Northumberland, and the West Riding, where overcrowding is still very prevalent, point to amelioration in those areas."

IN URBAN AND RURAL DISTRICT AREAS.

In these cases it is officially recorded that overcrowding is worst among the urban districts of Durham and Northumberland, where in seven cases the proportion of tenements with more than two occupants per room is upwards of 40 per cent.; the proportion in many of the West Riding towns being also high, and in some cases exceeding 20 per cent. Outside these counties overcrowding is highest in Haydock (25·2 per cent.), in Lancashire; Sedgley (20 per cent.) and Quarry Bank (18·5 per cent.), in Staffordshire; Dawley (18·4 per cent.), in Shropshire; and Carlisle (18·1 per cent.), in Cumberland. Among rural districts

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those in Durham and Northumberland show the highest proportions, rising in Easington rural district to 37·6 per cent. Outside these counties the highest proportions of overcrowding are in the rural districts of Wakefield (18·2), Halifax (17·0), and Hemsworth (16·2) in the West Riding; Longtown (14·7) in Cumberland; Wrexham (14·4) and Chirk (14·3) in Denbighshire; and Kingswinford (14·0) in Staffordshire.

THE COUNTY BOROUGHES AND LARGE TOWNS.

The position in large towns is shown by the fact that in twelve of them (in addition to London) tenements of less than five rooms comprised more than 70 per cent. of the total.

Towns in which 1-4 room tenements were more than 70 per cent. of the total.	Per cent.
South Shields	83·1
Gateshead	82·9
Dewsbury.....	80·1
Devonport.....	79·6
Newcastle-on-Tyne	79·3
Sunderland	78·5
Tynemouth	76·3
Oldham	75·1
Rochdale	72·5
Huddersfield.....	71·8
Plymouth	71·7
London	70·2

Whilst in Oldham 66·2 per cent. of the tenements consists of four rooms, in Blackburn 61·2 per cent., in Bury 59·2, in Bolton 53·8, and in Stoke-on-Trent 53·6. In towns where five-roomed tenements are regarded as a feature, these tenements are in the

minority, as in Edmonton 47·1 per cent., Barrow-in-Furness 39·8, Reading 39·0, Nottingham 38·7, Lincoln 38·6, Enfield 36·8, and Ilford 35·9. The towns figuring with an abnormal proportion of six-roomed tenements, such as Northampton 51·7, Leicester 51·2, Ipswich 46·8, Norwich 41·1, and Handsworth 40·0, are the exception to the rule.

THE GREAT CITIES.

As for the state of affairs in the great cities that is clearly recorded in the official statement that the highest percentages of one-roomed tenements are in Dublin (33·9), Glasgow (20·0), and London (13·4); of two-roomed in Glasgow (46·2), Edinburgh (31·6), and Dublin (21·0); and of three-roomed in Birmingham (30·5), Edinburgh (21·9), and London (21·3). Tenements of from one to three rooms number over half of the total tenements in Glasgow, where they reach 85·1 per cent., in Dublin (65·4), Edinburgh (62·9), and London (53·7), whereas in Belfast they form only 9·7 per cent., and in Manchester 15·0 per cent. In Manchester 40·6 per cent. of the tenements are of four rooms, and in Belfast the proportion is 23·9 per cent. Of tenements of over six rooms Liverpool has the highest proportion (14·1), followed by London (13·3), and Edinburgh (11·8), while Glasgow has the lowest (3·6).

The proportion of the towns population living more than two in a room was 53·6 in Glasgow, 37·9 in Dublin, 31·1 in Edinburgh, 16·8 in London, 9·8 in Birmingham, 9·5 in Liverpool, 7·0 in Manchester, and 5·5 in Belfast.



The World versus Germany.—Germany is uniting practically the whole world against her. In Europe, Great Britain and her overseas dominions, France, Russia, Belgium, Italy, Serbia, Roumania, Greece, and Portugal. In the East, China declared war, and Japan is assisting the Allies. In the New World the attitude is as follows: 1917—April 6th, the United States declared war; April 7th, Cuba declared war; April 10th, Panama declared war; April 10th, Brazil broke off relations; April 14th, Bolivia broke off relations; April 27th, Guatemala broke off relations; May 17th, Honduras broke off relations; May 19th, Nicaragua broke off relations; June 12th, San Domingo broke off relations; June 20th, Haiti broke off relations; October 6th, Peru broke off relations; October 6th, Uruguay broke off relations; October 6th, San Salvador declared her solidarity with the United States; October 26th, Brazil declared war.

THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Sq. Miles.	Capitals.
China	400,000,000	4,277,170	Peking.
British Empire	435,000,000	13,123,712	London.
Russian Empire.....	166,250,000	8,647,657	Petrograd.
United States.....	97,337,000	3,616,484	Washington.
United States and Islands	109,357,490	3,743,344	Washington.
Philippines	8,460,052	115,026	Manila.
Porto Rico	1,151,579	3,606	San Juan.
Hawaii	200,065	6,449	Honolulu.
Tutuila, Samoa.....	7,251	55
Guam	12,517	210	Agana.
France and Colonies	93,850,000	4,372,000	Paris.
France.....	39,601,509	207,054	Paris.
Colonies	54,240,700	4,165,815
Algeria	5,600,000	194,950	Algiers.
Senegal, &c.	8,850,000	1,600,000	St. Louis.
Tunis.....	1,900,000	51,000	Tunis.
Cayenne	32,908	30,500	Cayenne.
Cambodia	1,500,000	67,723	Saigon.
Cochin-China	3,000,000	22,000
Tonquin	6,000,000	46,224	Hanoi.
New Caledonia	56,000	7,200	Noumea.
Tahiti, &c.....	31,000	1,173
Sahara.....	500,000	925,000
Madagascar	2,505,000	227,000	Antananarivo.
German Empire (in Europe)	64,925,993	208,780	Berlin.
Prussia.....	40,165,219	134,616	Berlin.
Bavaria.....	6,887,291	29,292	Munich.
Saxony	4,806,661	5,789	Dresden.
Württemberg	2,437,574	7,534	Stuttgart.
Baden	2,148,833	5,823	Karlsruhe.
Alsace-Lorraine	1,874,014	5,604	Strasbourg.
Hesse	1,282,051	2,996	Darmstadt.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	639,958	5,068	Schwerin.
Hamburg.....	1,014,664	160
Brunswick	694,339	1,418	Brunswick.
Oldenburg	483,042	2,482	Oldenburg.
Saxe-Weimar	417,149	1,397	Weimar.
Anhalt.....	331,128	888	Dessau.
Saxe-Meiningen	278,762	953	Meiningen.
Saxe-Coburg Gotha	257,177	764	Gotha.
Bremen	299,526	99
Saxe-Altenburg	216,128	511	Altenburg.
Lippe	150,937	469	Detmold.
Reuss (younger line)	152,752	319	Gera.
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	106,442	1,131	Neu Strelitz.
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	100,702	363	Rudolstadt.
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	89,917	333	Sondershausen.
Lübeck	116,599	115
Waldeck	61,707	433	Arolsen.
Reuss (elder line)	72,769	122	Greiz.
German Africa.....	14,120,000	1,035,086

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THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD—*continued.*

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Sq. Miles.	Capitals.
Austro-Hungarian Empire	51,340,378	261,029	Vienna.
Japan (with Formosa).....	67,142,798	235,886	Tokio.
Netherlands	5,898,175	12,648	Amsterdam.
Netherlands and Colonies	43,759,688	845,121	Amsterdam.
Amboyna	299,491	19,861	Amboyna.
Borneo	1,250,000	213,000
Celebes	2,000,000	77,855	Menado.
Java and Madura.....	30,098,008	50,970	Batavia.
Sumatra.....	4,029,505	178,338	Padang.
Surinam	92,736	49,845	Paramaribo.
Ternate	108,415	202,040	Ternate.
Turkish Empire	31,000,000	Constantinople.
European Turkey.....	2,000,000	11,100
Asiatic Turkey	17,683,500	682,960
Egypt.....	9,821,100	400,000	Cairo.
Italy	34,700,000	110,623	Rome.
Italy and Colonies.....	36,467,000	711,643	Rome.
Eritrea	450,000	60,000
Somali Coast	130,000	300,000
Tripoli	1,000,000	410,000	Tripoli.
Spain	19,588,688	194,700	Madrid.
Spanish Africa	276,000	82,400
Brazil	21,600,000	3,298,870	Rio de Janeiro.
Mexico	15,000,000	768,883	City of Mexico.
Congo State	20,000,000	900,000	Boma.
Persia	10,000,000	628,000	Teheran.
Portugal	5,423,132	35,490	Lisbon.
Portugal and Colonies	16,000,000	871,854	Lisbon.
Portuguese Africa.....	8,248,527	830,000
Portuguese Asia.....	910,425	7,600
Sweden	5,476,441	172,876	Stockholm.
Norway.....	2,302,698	124,129	Christiania.
Morocco.....	6,500,000	314,000	Fez.
Belgium.....	7,432,784	11,373	Brussels.
Abyssinia	7,500,000	400,000	Adis Ababa.
Albania	2,000,000	21,870
Siam	6,000,000	Bangkok.
Argentina	7,500,000	1,135,840	Buenos Ayres.
Roumania	7,600,000	52,760	Bucharest.
Colombia	4,500,000	438,436	Bogota.
Bulgaria.....	5,000,000	42,602	Sofia.
Afghanistan	5,000,000	215,400	Cabul.
Chile.....	4,249,279	291,544	Santiago.
Peru	4,500,000	697,640	Lima.
Switzerland	3,741,971	15,976	Berne.
Bolivia	2,267,935	709,000	La Paz.
Greece.....	4,500,000	46,522	Athens.
Denmark	2,585,660	15,388	Copenhagen.
Denmark and Colonies.....	3,000,000	106,170	Copenhagen.
Iceland	78,470	39,756	Rejkjavik.
Greenland.....	11,893	46,740	Godthaab.
West Indies	30,527	138
Venezuela	2,591,000	363,730	Caracas.

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THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD—continued.

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Sq. Miles.	Capital.
Serbia.....	4,000,000	23,661	Belgrade.
Liberia	2,060,000	41,000	Monrovia.
Nepaul	4,000,000	54,000	Khatmandu.
Cuba	2,048,980	44,164	Havana.
Oman	1,500,000	82,000	Muscat.
Guatemala.....	1,804,000	48,290	New Guatemala.
Ecuador	1,500,000	120,000	Quito.
Haiti	1,400,000	10,204	Port au Prince.
Salvador	1,707,000	7,225	San Salvador.
Uruguay	1,111,758	72,210	Montevideo.
Khiva.....	800,000	22,320	Khiva.
Paraguay.....	800,000	97,700	Asuncion.
Honduras	553,446	46,250	Tegucigalpa.
Nicaragua.....	600,000	49,200	Managua.
Dominican Republic	610,000	18,045	San Domingo.
Costa Rica.....	399,400	18,400	San Jose.
Panama	360,542	32,380	Panama.
Montenegro	500,000	4,500	Cettinje.



INFIRMITIES.

IN the number totally devoid of sight, hearing, speech, and reason, collectively amounting to 270,000 in round figures at the last census, the United Kingdom contains a legion of witnesses to the defects of modern civilisation. And the worst of it is that the inadequate provision for the alleviation of these afflictions is almost as conspicuous as the conditions which generate them. The blind and the deaf and dumb are still left largely to rely on voluntary organisations or actual charity for support, while, with regard to the pauper lunatics, who constitute the overwhelming majority of the mentally deranged, the lack of asylum accommodation has long been notorious. And whereas the lessening proportions of the blind and deaf-mutes serve to afford some consolation, the ever-increasing proportionate figures with regard to the mentally deranged give one "furiously to think," and this despite the fact that the Lunacy Commissioners have tried to explain the matter away by putting it down to more efficient segregation, apparently failing to note the implication that the keener the search the more people of unsound mind are discovered.

As regards the sexes, England and Wales has a preponderate proportion of females amongst the mentally deranged, and Ireland has a preponderate proportion of females amongst the blind; whereas in Scotland the males predominate throughout. Here are the proportions per million for the three parts of the United Kingdom:—

ENGLAND AND WALES.

	Males.	Females.
Blind.....	760	702
Deaf and Dumb.....	468	373
Mentally Deranged .	4,370	4,604

SCOTLAND.

Blind.....	709	685
Deaf and Dumb.....	611	512
Mentally Deranged .	5,062	4,870

IRELAND.

Blind.....	973	991
Deaf and Dumb.....	1,024	803
Mentally Deranged .	6,808	6,148

Moreover, apart from the deaf and dumb in England and Wales, in every million males 610 suffer from complete deafness, and in every million females 860 experience the same affliction: 26,648 being the collective number for males and females.

LUNACY IN THE WAR PERIOD.

For the last three years the numbers of notified insane persons under care in England and Wales have been as follows:—1915 (January 1st), 140,466; 1916 (January 1st), 137,188; 1917 (January 1st), 134,029. The total decrease thus amounts to 6,437 for two years, a figure standing in contrast with the average annual increase for the ten years ending December 31st, 1914, amounting to 2,251. The fact that the year 1915 was the first year to show a decrease since reliable statistics have been available points to the fact that the decrease is due to

the exceptional circumstances of the period, and is therefore but temporary. In this connection it may be pointed out that while the percentage of males under care has declined (1915–17) from 46·2 to 45·7, the percentage of females has increased from 53·8 to 54·3. “As a fact bearing on this decrease in the proportion of males it may be noted that on January 1st, 1917, there were nearly 2,000 mental and nervous cases under observation in military hospitals, of whom a certain number will probably eventually be certified as insane, and so fall within the scope of our (*i.e.*, the Board of Control's) figures.”

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MARRIAGES.

FOR the three complete quinquennia of the present century the marriage rates per 1,000 of the population are recorded as follows:—

Period.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
1901–5	15·6	14·0	10·4	14·9
1906–10.....	15·3	13·6	10·3	14·6
1911–15.....	16·4	14·3	10·7	15·6

The figures of 1911–15 for England and Wales are the highest since the seventies of last century. Herewith are the figures denoting the number of marriages each year, along with the rate per 1,000 of the population, during the last quinquennium:—

Year.	England and Wales.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate
1911	274,943	15·2	31,844	13·4	23,473	10·7	330,260	14·6
1912	283,834	15·6	32,506	13·7	23,283	10·6	339,623	14·9
1913	286,583	15·7	33,691	14·3	22,266	10·2	342,540	15·0
1914	294,401	15·9	35,049	14·8	23,695	10·8	353,145	15·3
1915	360,885	*19·5	36,272	15·2	24,154	11·1	421,311	*18·3

* Based on the estimated population in 1914.

In England and Wales the year 1915 was characterised by an enormous increase in marriages, the figures showing an excess of 66,484 marriages over the total number for 1914; whereas in Scotland and Ireland the figures for 1915 show a smaller number of marriages than those of the previous year. As for the marriage rate of 1915 in England and Wales its abnormality is attested by the fact that the “proportion to total population of persons married since 1838 has ranged from a previous maximum of 17·9 per 1,000 living in 1853 to a minimum of 14·2 per 1,000 in 1886, the mean annual rate for the whole period (1838–1915) being 15·9 per 1,000.”

BIRTHS AND BIRTH-RATES.

THE following is the official record of births for the latest quinquennium, 1911-15:—

Year.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
1911.....	881,138	121,850	101,758	1,104,746
1912.....	872,737	122,790	101,035	1,096,562
1913.....	881,890	120,516	100,094	1,102,500
1914.....	879,096	123,934	98,806	1,101,836
1915.....	814,014	114,181	95,583	1,024,378

The total reduction of births by 77,458 in 1915 points to the effects of the war on the natality of the United Kingdom. But, apart from the war, the gradual reduction in the number of births is a matter of general knowledge which statistics make specific. Thus, for example, in the first five years of this century the natality of the United Kingdom was represented by 5,866,579 births, in the second five years by 5,761,914, and in the third quinquennium by 5,430,022. Thus the period 1906-10 shows 104,665 less births than the period 1901-5, and the 1911-15 period 331,892 less than in the preceding quinquennium —altogether a diminution to the number of 436,557 births in the course of ten years. Needless to say, there is a lessening number of deaths to be placed in the scale, but a lessening to a smaller extent than the births, the outcome being that the total excess births in the period 1911-15 numbered 2,092,122 (or an annual average excess of 418,422), as compared with a total excess of 2,419,709 (or an annual average excess of 483,942) in the period 1901-5. All this shows how necessary it is that the nation should take effectual steps to prevent the terrible waste of child life indicated by the statistics of infantile mortality. Meantime, the birth-rates per 1,000 of the population during the period 1911-15 provide a comparison between the different parts of the kingdom as well as with a former period (1901-5), when the birth-rate in England and Wales averaged 28·1, in Scotland 29·2, in Ireland 23·2, and in the United Kingdom as a whole 27·8.

BIRTH-RATES PER 1,000 OF THE POPULATION.

Year.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
1911.....	24·3	25·6	23·2	24·4
1912.....	23·9	25·9	23·0	24·1
1913.....	24·1	25·5	22·8	24·1
1914.....	23·8	26·1	22·6	23·9
1915.....	22·0*	23·9	22·0	22·2*
Average.....	23·6	25·4	22·7	23·7

* Based on the estimated population in 1914.

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The following comparative figures for 1896-1900 and the most recent period available show (1) that the decline of the birth-rate is an international feature, and (2) that the eastern countries of Europe still in the agricultural stage are characterised by the highest rate; that the Central Empires come next, the southern countries (Italy and Spain) follow after, then come the northern countries, while the north-western countries figure with the lowest birth-rates in Europe. Switzerland and Sweden, it will be noted, are two exceptions, inasmuch as their birth-rates approximate to those of the north-west of Europe, and not to those of their respective geographical spheres:—

BIRTH-RATES PER 1,000 OF THE POPULATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES IN 1896-1900 AND AFTER.

	1896-1900.		
Russia in Europe.....	49.3	45.4 (1906-9)
Bulgaria	41.0	40.2 (1911)
Roumania.....	40.2	42.6 (1911-14)
Serbia	40.0	37.1 (1911-12)
Hungary	39.4	35.6 (1911-12)
Austria.....	37.3	31.4 (1911-12)
Prussia	36.5	28.8 (1911-13)
German Empire	36.0	28.1 (1911-13)
Spain	34.3	31.0 (1911-14)
Italy	34.0	31.7 (1911-14)
Finland.....	32.6	28.0 (1911-14)
Netherlands	32.2	27.7 (1911-15)
Norway	30.3	25.2 (1911-15)
Scotland	30.0	25.4 (1911-15)
Denmark	30.0	25.8 (1911-15)
England and Wales	29.3	23.6 (1911-15)
Belgium	28.9	22.8 (1911-12)
United Kingdom.....	28.7	23.7 (1911-15)
Switzerland.....	28.5	22.7 (1911-15)
Sweden	26.9	23.1 (1911-15)
Ireland.....	23.3	22.7 (1911-15)
France	22.0	18.7 (1911-14)
Japan.....	31.0	33.6 (1911-13)
Australia	27.7	27.7 (1911-15)
New Zealand	25.7	26.0 (1911-15)



BANKING IN 1917.

The operations of the London Bankers' Clearing-house during 1917, compared with the figures for the preceding year, were as follows:—

—	1917.	1916.	Increase.
	£	£	£
Grand Total	19,121,196,000	15,275,046,000	3,846,150,000
Town Clearing Total	15,699,528,000	12,328,568,000	3,370,960,000
Metropolitan Clearing Total	1,177,478,000	1,074,027,000	103,451,000
Country Cheque „ „	2,244,190,000	1,872,451,000	371,739,000

DEATHS AND DEATH-RATES.

TO what extent the death-rate of England and Wales has declined since the middle of last century the subjoined figures denote:—

	1846-50.	1896-1900.	1900-5.	1906-10.	1911-15.
Crude Rates per 1,000 Living.....	23.3	17.7	16.0	14.7	14.3
Standardised Rates per 1,000 Living....	22.4	17.6	16.0	14.4	13.8

The total deaths, along with the death-rates per 1,000 of the population, for each year during the period 1911-15 are officially recorded as follows:—

Year.	England and Wales.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Total Deaths.	Rates.	Total Deaths.	Rates.	Total Deaths.	Rates.	Total Deaths.	Rates.
1911...	527,810	14.6	71,732	15.1	72,475	16.5	672,017	14.8
1912...	486,939	13.3	72,340	15.3	72,187	16.5	631,466	13.9
1913...	504,975	13.8	73,069	15.5	74,694	17.1	652,738	14.3
1914...	516,742	14.0	73,557	15.5	71,345	16.3	661,644	14.4
1915...	562,253	15.7	81,631	17.1	76,151	17.6	720,035	15.6

DEATH-RATES PER 1,000 OF THE POPULATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES IN 1896-1900 AND AFTER.

	1896-1900.	
Russia in Europe.....	31.9	26.5 (1906-9)
Spain	28.8	22.3 (1911-14)
Hungary	27.9	24.2 (1911-12)
Roumania.....	27.4	24.5 (1911-14)
Austria.....	25.6	21.2 (1911-12)
Serbia	24.8	21.5 (1911-12)
Bulgaria	24.0	21.5 (1911)
Italy	22.9	19.0 (1911-14)
German Empire	21.2	16.0 (1911-13)
Prussia	21.0	15.9 (1911-13)
France	20.7	18.6 (1911-14)
Finland.....	19.0	16.1 (1911-14)
Switzerland	18.2	14.3 (1911-15)
Belgium	18.1	15.6 (1911-12)
Ireland	18.1	16.8 (1911-15)
Scotland	17.9	15.7 (1911-15)
United Kingdom	17.8	14.6 (1911-15)
England and Wales.....	17.7	14.3 (1911-15)
Netherlands	17.2	12.8 (1911-15)
Denmark	16.4	12.9 (1911-15)
Sweden	16.1	14.0 (1911-15)
Norway	15.7	13.3 (1911-15)
Australia	12.7	10.8 (1911-15)
New Zealand	9.5	9.2 (1911-15)
United States	*17.6	13.9 (1911-15)
Japan.....	20.7	20.0 (1911-13)

* In the year 1900. The United States figures are recorded for the registration area.

STATISTICS OF CRIME.

THE striking dimensions of the grand army of law-breakers are attested by the official figures, which record for the United Kingdom during the normal quinquennium (1909-13) a total of over 5½ million persons charged with offences against the law, and over 4,200,000 convicted; that is to say a yearly average of over 1,100,000 cases, and over 840,000 actual offenders against the "majesty of the law." With figures like these staring one in the face, it would be futile to argue that the stereotyped methods either safeguard society or act as a deterrent against transgressors of the law. And the reason why is as clear as noonday. It is because effects are dealt with rather than causes. Crime, like pauperism and lunacy, is an indication of social malformation, and until the evil is dealt with at the root by the establishment of social and economic conditions which take away both the instigation and the opportunity to crime, so long shall we be confronted with figures such as follow:—

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF CRIME FOR THE FIVE YEARS, 1909-13.

(1) Trials and Convictions in the Superior Courts.		
	Total Number of Persons Tried.	Total Number of Persons Convicted.
In England and Wales, at Assizes and Quarter Sessions	69,402 ...	57,636
In Scotland, at the High Court of Justiciary and Sheriff Courts.....	7,757 ...	6,209
In Ireland, at Assizes, Dublin Commission, and Quarter Sessions.....	10,716 ...	7,302
	87,875 ...	71,147
(2) Trials and Convictions in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction.		
(a) For Indictable Offences—		
In England and Wales	358,403 ...	144,811
In Scotland	120,718 ...	87,277
In Ireland.....	36,479 ...	11,583
	515,600 ...	243,671
(b) For Non-indictable Offences—		
In England and Wales.....	3,298,928 ...	2,586,352
In Scotland	669,101 ...	496,904
In Ireland.....	956,129 ...	813,085
	4,924,158 ...	3,896,341
Grand Total	5,527,633 ...	4,211,159

An analysis of the official data gives the following results as regards the sex proportions:—

	Relative Proportions of the Sexes Tried.			
	1900-04		1909-13.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Superior Courts—				
England and Wales.	88·7 ...	11·3 ...	90·0 ...	10·0 per cent.
Scotland.....	87·2 ...	12·8 ...	88·0 ...	12·0 „
Ireland	84·6 ...	15·4 ...	86·5 ...	13·5 „
Courts of Summary Jurisdiction.				
Indictable Offences—				
England and Wales.	— ...	— ...	83·6 ...	16·4 „
Scotland.....	— ...	— ...	83·8 ...	16·2 „
Ireland	— ...	— ...	82·1 ...	17·9 „
Non-indictable Offences—				
England and Wales.	— ...	— ...	84·5 ...	15·5 „
Scotland.....	— ...	— ...	78·6 ...	21·4 „
Ireland	— ...	— ...	84·6 ...	15·4 „

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CRIME AND THE WAR.

INDICATING the effect of the war the statistics of crime show a marked decrease for the year ended March, 1917. The following figures of prisoners received under sentence are taken from the annual report of the Prison Commissioners of England and Wales:—

1913-14	151,603
1914-15	114,283
1915-16	64,160
1916-17	48,362

Three main reasons are given for this gratifying decrease—enlistment, restriction of drinking facilities, and the great demand for labour. The number of prisoners convicted, the extent to which the various class of offences have contributed to the great decrease in the population of our prisons is shown in the figures herewith on indictable and non-indictable offences:—

Commenting upon the fall of 80 per cent. in the number of imprisonments for drunkenness, the Commissioners suggest that the restrictions of the Liquor Control Board are largely responsible also for the reduction in the number of committals to prison for offences against the person, both serious and trivial. These, they suggest, are frequently the result of alcoholic excess, and in the three years convictions for murder, manslaughter, wounding, &c., fell 63 per cent., and those for minor offences 68 per cent. There is also, it will be noted, a great decline in the number of vagrants. Upon this fact the Report remarks that “they may have been absorbed in munition factories, or they may supply the leakage in the labour market, but, in either case, it is evidence that these men are not the hopeless and irreclaimable class they are generally supposed to be.”

INDICTABLE OFFENCES.

	1913-14.	1916-17.	Decrease per cent.
Against the Person	1,208 ...	708 ...	41
Burglary, Housebreaking, &c.	1,960 ...	583 ...	70
Larcenies, Embezzlement, Receiving, &c.	17,826 ...	9,306 ...	48

NON-INDICTABLE OFFENCES.

Assaults	8,666 ...	2,801 ...	68
Drunkenness, &c.....	51,851 ...	10,954 ...	80
Police Regulations.....	8,661 ...	1,882 ...	78
Poor Law Offences	4,275 ...	1,160 ...	73
Prostitution	7,952 ...	3,280 ...	59
Begging and Sleeping Out.....	15,019 ...	2,115 ...	86

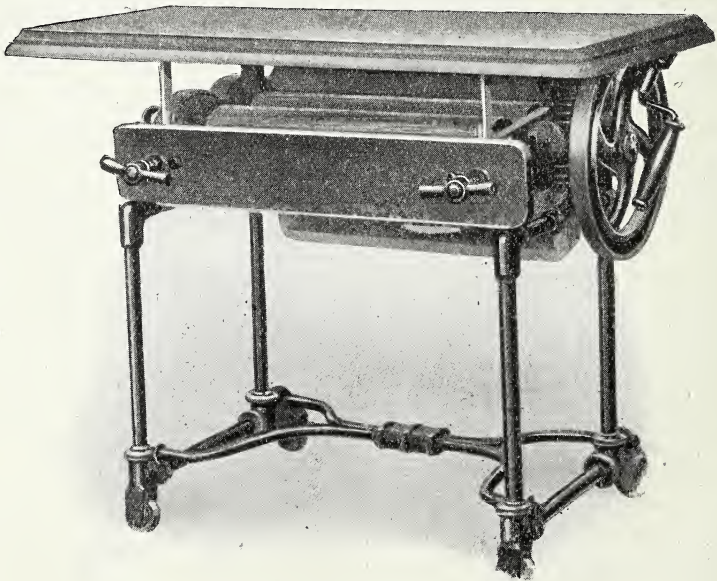
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WAR-TIME LEGISLATION.

DURING the war new Acts of Parliament, temporary and permanent, have been exceedingly plentiful. The following have been selected from a tremendous list as being appropriate for this volume:—

1914.

- C. 22 (Aug. 7th). ACCIDENTS IN COAL-MINES.—The time for commencing proceedings respecting them.
- C. 7 (July 31st). AGRICULTURAL HOLDINGS ACT, 1908.—Compensation to tenant for disturbance in connection with the sale.
- C. 17 (Aug. 7th). ALIENS, STATUS OF.—Declares the conditions of British nationality, and regulates the naturalisation of aliens, the status of married women and infant children.
- C. 65 (Aug. 28th). ARTICLES OF COMMERCE (RETURNS).—Gives powers to the Board of Trade to obtain information about stocks of articles of commerce, and to enable possession to be taken of articles unreasonably withheld.
- C. 14 and 72 (Aug. 5th). BANK NOTES AND CURRENCY NOTES.—Powers to issue 20s. and 10s. notes, and make postal orders to pass as currency notes.
- C. 61 (Aug. 28th). CONSTABLES, SPECIAL.—Power to make regulations about special constables during the war.
- C. 21 (Aug. 7th). COUNTY AND BOROUGH COUNCILS.—Qualification for alderman or councillor extended to all who have resided within the limits for twelve months, but a woman shall not be a justice of the peace.
- C. 78 (Aug. 31st). COURTS (EMERGENCY POWERS) ACT.—Power to Courts to defer an execution, a levy of distress, and so forth, where rent is not above £50 per annum, and where the money or rent is due on a contract made before August 4th, 1914. The Court may give time to debtor who proves his inability to pay is owing to the war.
- (See also C. 13 and C. 41, 1916. See also 1917.)
- C. 8 (Nov. 27th, 1914). DEFENCE OF THE REALM CONSOLIDATION ACTS.—These acts are known as D.O.R.A., and are of a far-reaching, important character. The two earlier Acts of 1914 (C. 29 and C. 63) have been superseded by these later Acts (see also Munitions of War Act, 1915, C. 54.) Essentially for war-time, these Acts enable the Government, by mere Orders in Council, to make regulations against communicating with the enemy, for the safety of forces and ships, of any means of communication, and of railways, ports, &c.; to spread reports likely to cause disaffection, interfere with the forces, or relations with foreign powers; to secure the navigation of vessels according to directions of the Admiralty; to prevent any assistance being given to the enemy. These regulations may provide for acquiring or seizing land, or suspend bye-laws, require the output of factories making arms, &c., or take over such a factory; and for trying a person under

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martial law, or at a Court of Summary Jurisdiction. Then it was enacted that a British subject charged with an offence might be tried before a Civil Court with a jury; then to seize any factory, and give directions (from Army Council or Admiralty) for the production of war material, and a contract may be broken to do so; give powers to regulate and to seize liquor shops in any area, and to a Government authority to maintain refreshment-rooms. Even this brief reference to the character of the Defence of the Realm Acts suffices to show how extraordinary it is, breaking up ordinary conditions of life, restricting personal liberty in many ways. The Act passed in December, 1916, enables a department which has occupied land (or buildings therefore) under these Acts to retain it by the consent of the Railway and Canal Commission for from two to five years after the war, or to acquire the land permanently, which in turn may be sold. The powers taken by this last Act over private property are drastic, and the compensation to be paid will involve many disputes.

- C. 25. ELECTORAL DISABILITIES (NAVAL AND MILITARY SERVICE).—Absence with the naval or military services shall not disqualify a person as an elector.
- C. 64. EXPORTATION PROHIBITION ACT.—Enables the Customs to prohibit the exportation of any article whatever during the war.
- C. 51. FOOD SUPPLIES.—Enables the Board of Trade, when it deems foodstuffs to be unreasonably withheld, to seize the stuff, and pay a reasonable sum for it.
- C. 26. FOOD, FORAGE, AND STORES of all descriptions may be seized under the Army Act. (This power, too, may be deemed as covered by the Defence of the Realm Acts.)
- C. 30. INJURIES IN WAR (COMPENSATION).—By an Order in Council pensions and allowances may be given to civilians who may be injured in connection with warlike operations.
- C. 77. INTOXICATING LIQUOR (TEMPORARY RESTRICTION).—To enable authority to restrict the sale or consumption of intoxicating liquor during this war. (See also "D.O.R.A.")
- C. 114 and C. 46. MILK AND DAIRIES.—To regulate dairies, to ensure the purity of milk, and the sale. The Acts are for England and Scotland.
- C. 81. NATIONAL INSURANCE (NAVY AND ARMY).—To extend the National Insurance Act, 1911, to men who, previously insured, serve during the present war.
- C. 85. RATES (PROCEEDINGS FOR RECOVERY).—To extend the time for taking proceedings for recovery of rates, in circumstances attributable to this war.

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- C. 87 (and other Acts of 1915-16). **TRADING WITH THE ENEMY.**—Provides penalties for trading with the enemy, and gives powers to the Secretary of State or the Board of Trade to inspect books and documents and deal with the business of an alien in this kingdom.
- C. 60. **WAR LOAN.**—Mentioned because it was the *first* of the War Loan Acts (1914).
- 1915.
- C. 81 **AMERICAN LOAN.**—To enable a loan for 500 millions to be raised in the U.S.A. in conjunction with the French Government.
- C. 21. **BRITISH SHIPS (TRANSFER RESTRICTION).**—To restrict the transfer of a British ship, wherever registered, to a person not qualified to own a British ship.
- C. 75. **PRICE OF COAL (LIMITATION).**—Limits price of coal at pit's mouth, charge for wagon hire, with references to the Board of Trade.
- C. 18 and C. 24. **INJURIES IN WAR (COMPENSATION).**—Enables the naval and army authorities and the Postmaster-General to grant pensions to persons injured in connection with the war.
- C. 69. **COTTON ASSOCIATIONS (EMERGENCY ACTION).**—To confirm action taken by any Cotton Association for dealing with emergencies during the war, such as postponement of contracts.
- C. 31, C. 71, and C. 102. **CUSTOMS (WAR POWERS).**—Provides with respect to use of prohibited goods as stores, of the ultimate destination of exported goods, of imported goods of enemy origin and any suspected goods, action in anticipation of restriction of exports, &c., and confers powers to deal with goods in such circumstances.
- C. 76 and C. 100.
(Also C. 44 of 1916). **ELECTIONS AND REGISTRATION, 1915, and the Parliament and Local Elections Acts, 1915 and 1916,** provide for the postponement of these elections, both Parliamentary and local, for a year from each date.
- C. 46. **IMMATURE SPIRITS (RESTRICTION).**—To prohibit the delivery for consumption of spirits which have not been warehoused for three years.
- C. 97. **INCREASE OF RENT AND MORTGAGE INTEREST (WAR RESTRICTIONS).**—To prevent the increase of rent and mortgage on small houses during war above the standard rent fixed by the Act, except in the case of new tenancies.
- C. 36. **LEGAL PROCEEDINGS AGAINST ENEMIES.**—Deals with writs in the High Court against enemies in certain cases, the cases specified in clause 1 (6).
- C. 65. **MAINTENANCE OF LIVE STOCK.**—Gives powers to the Board of Agriculture to restrict the slaughter, to prohibit the sale of immature meat, &c., &c., with a view to maintaining a sufficient stock of cattle, sheep, and swine.

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- C. 35. NAVAL MARRIAGES.—Relaxes during the war of the place where marriage may be solemnised.
- C. 91. MIDWIVES (SCOTLAND).—To secure better training of midwives, and to regulate their practice.
- C. 104. MILITARY SERVICE.—To conscript men for war
(Also C. 15 of 1916.) service who were eighteen years of age on August 15th, 1915, and not above forty-one years, &c., &c.
- C. 51. MINISTRY OF MUNITIONS.—To establish such a Ministry during the war, and for purposes incidental to it.
- C. 54 and C. 99. MUNITIONS OF WAR.—Contains provisions respecting
(See C. 61 of 1916.) this object, such as settlement of labour difficulties, lock-outs and strikes; creates "controlled establishments," and regulates work, profits, &c., at such establishments; takes power to amend "D.O.R.A." (No. 2), 1915, respecting the management and use of such an establishment; powers to require information from the employers about the work; provides penalties, and for payment of arbitration and munition tribunals, &c., &c. The second Act declares and gives power to Government factories "controlled," amends sections touching workmen and touching employers, deals with rate of wages for women, semi-skilled and unskilled labour, the dilution of labour, and a variety of related matters.
- C. 60. NATIONAL REGISTRATION.—An Act by which all the population between the ages of 15 and 65 was registered in August, 1915.
- C. 82. POST OFFICE AND TELEGRAPH ACT, 1915.—To raise the postal and telegraph rates of charge.
- C. 89. FINANCE (No. 2) ACT, 1915.—Sections 27 and 28 provide for the quarterly assessment of weekly wage-earners to income tax.
- 1916.
- C. 51. ANZAC (RESTRICTION ON TRADE USE OF WORD).—Prohibits the use of the word "Anzac" in connection with any trade, business, calling, or profession.
- C. 58. BUSINESS NAMES (REGISTRATION OF).—To require the names of persons in firms, &c., doing business to be registered.
- C. 43. WAR CHARITIES.—To prevent the raising of money for war charities unless registered.
- C. 66. DUBLIN RECONSTRUCTION (EMERGENCY PROVISIONS).—To provide for the rebuilding of areas in Dublin after a recent insurrection; takes land for streets compulsorily.
- C. 26 and C. 57. OUTPUT OF BEER (RESTRICTION).—To restrict the output of a brewer, and the supply of beer to free licensed houses.

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- C. 31. POLICE, FACTORIES, &C. (MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS).—Affecting some matters in the charge of the Secretary of State, such as police, factories, mining candidates, &c., during the war.
- C. 60. SOLDIERS AND SAILORS (GIFTS FOR LAND SETTLEMENT).—Power to accept land for settlement of soldiers and sailors by public departments and local authorities.
- C. 14. SUMMER TIME.—To provide for time to be one hour before Greenwich mean time from May 21st to October 1st (in Great Britain and Ireland).
- C. 62. VOLUNTEER ACT (ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND).—Provides for volunteers to drill and render service.

1917.

BILLETING OF CIVILIANS.—Sets up "welfare committees" to billet civilians engaged on work of national importance.

COMPANIES (FOREIGN INTERESTS).—To restrict foreign interests in companies.

CORN PRODUCTION.—To fix a minimum price for wheat and oats, and minimum wages for agricultural labourers.

GRAND JURIES (SUSPENSION).—No grand juries during the war.

MILITARY SERVICE (REVIEW OF EXCEPTIONS).—To enable certain cases to be reviewed.

MUNITIONS OF WAR.—To enable the Government to dilute labour in private work.

NAVAL AND MILITARY WAR PENSIONS, &C.—Transfers the powers of 1915 to Ministry of Pensions.

OLD AGE PENSIONS (See Estimates).—2s. 6d. weekly more allowed to pensioners.

PARLIAMENT AND LOCAL ELECTIONS.—To postpone them further; Parliament to live to 6 years, 10 months.

SOCIETIES (SUSPENSION OF MEETINGS).—Enabling approved and other societies to forego meetings.

TRADE UNION AMALGAMATION.—To avoid delays and demarcation disputes.

VENEREAL DISEASE.—To deal with this scourge by concerted action.

WAR COMPENSATION (WAR ADDITION).—Provides an addition to compensation payable under the Act of 1906 in cases of total incapacity during the war.

N.B.—The difficulties of the time are such that later legislation cannot be added here with confidence, and at a late hour even such an important measure as the Representation of the People Bill had not become an Act of Parliament. Most of the legislation which causes so much daily anxiety, touching food and social requirements of various kinds, is done by means of regulations under the Defence of the Realm Acts passed during the war, and is too detailed and changeable to be of use in this list.

INSOLVENCY.

IN the period of 15 years between 1900 and 1914 the bankruptcies in England and Wales totalled up to 60,799, and the number of administration orders made by County Courts to 83,384, the annual averages being as follows:—

	Bankruptcies.	Administration Orders Made by County Courts.
1900-4	4,338	4,697
1905-9	4,337	6,271
1910-14	3,485	5,709

In the same period the total liabilities in bankruptcy cases amounted to £88,901,998, and the assets to £35,599,243, signifying a total deficiency of £53,302,755. As will be seen from the following figures, the proportion of assets to liabilities shows a marked tendency to decrease.

	Average Annual Liabilities in Bankruptcy Cases.	Average Annual Assets.	Assets in Proportion to Liabilities.
	£	£	
1900-4	5,825,221	2,781,118	47·7 per cent.
1905-9	5,772,956	2,241,022	38·8 per cent.
1910-14	6,222,202	2,147,608	34·5 per cent.

During the war period there has been a diminution of insolvency cases, the number of bankruptcy cases for 1914 and 1915 being 2,867 and 2,379 respectively, as compared with 3,358 cases in 1913; whilst the number of County Court administrations for 1915 and 1916 amounted to 4,038 and 1,705 respectively, as compared with 5,426 for the year 1913. Despite the reduced number of bankruptcies in 1914 the total liabilities of £6,052,648 exceeded those of 1913 by over a million pounds sterling; while the total assets of £2,073,031 for 1914 amounted to only 30 per cent. in relation to the liabilities, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less than the average percentage for the quinquennium 1910-14. The figures of assets and liabilities for 1915 are not yet available.

OLD AGE PENSIONS.

DESPITE its defects, the Old Age Pensions Act of 1908 forms a notable illustration of the advance of social legislation as compared with the last century, an advance necessitated, on the one hand, by the increased cost of living, and propelled on the other by the growth of political consciousness amongst the mass of the people. The fact that the pension age was fixed at 70 and that the pensions ranged from 5s. per week downwards to 1s., and that an income of over 12s. per week served as a complete disqualification, shows that the Act did not err on the side of generosity. But, despite its patent defects, the benefit is incontestable. The unfortunate thing is that the pensions have been robbed of half their value by the doubling of the cost of living during war-time, a reduction for which the raising of pensions from 5s. to 7s. 6d. fails to compensate.

THE NUMBER OF OLD AGE PENSIONERS.

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
1911 ...	613,873	91,805	201,783	907,461
1912 ...	642,524	94,319	205,317	942,160
1913 ...	668,646	96,239	203,036	967,921

The proportion of pensioners to the population in 1913 was: In England, 18·54 per 1,000; in Scotland, 20·21; in Ireland, 46·25; and in the United Kingdom as a whole, 21·40.

THE COST OF PENSIONS.

In 1910 the total amount of the pensions paid through the Post Office was £8,465,231; in 1913, £12,130,609; and in 1914, £12,363,643, the latter figure representing over 50½ million Post Office Orders for the year.

In 1913 the 967,921 pensioners in the United Kingdom comprised 915,750 recipients of 5s. per week, 19,268 of 4s., 19,416 of 3s., 9,005 of 2s., and 4,482 of 1s. The total number of female pensioners was 604,110, and of male pensioners 363,811.



WORLD'S WHEAT HARVEST DATES.

JANUARY.—Australia, New Zealand, Chile, Argentine Republic.

FEBRUARY AND MARCH.—Upper Egypt, India.

APRIL.—Lower Egypt, India, Syria, Cyprus, Persia, Asia Minor, Mexico, Cuba

MAY.—Texas, Algeria, Central Asia, China, Japan, Morocco.

JUNE.—California, Oregon, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Kentucky, Kansas, Arkansas, Utah, Colorado, Missouri, Turkey, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, South of France.

JULY.—New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Southern Minnesota, Nebraska, Upper Canada, Roumania, Bulgaria, Austria, Hungary, South of Russia, Germany, Switzerland, South of England.

AUGUST.—Central and Northern Minnesota, Dakotas, Manitoba, Lower Canada, British Columbia, Belgium, Holland, Great Britain, Denmark, Poland, Central Russia.

SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER.—Scotland, Sweden, Norway, North of Russia.

NOVEMBER.—Peru, South Africa.

DECEMBER.—Burmah, New South Wales.

WRECKS.

SOME indication of the perils of seafaring is afforded by the figures for the 15 years' period 1900-14, which record a total loss (exclusive of vessels of the Royal Navy) of 4,879 vessels belonging to the United Kingdom, with an aggregate tonnage of 2,066,194 tons; the loss of these vessels at sea, moreover, involving the loss of 14,616 human lives. Dividing the 15 years into three periods of five years each, we get the following comparative figures:—

	Total Vessels Lost at Sea.		Tonnage.		Lives Lost.	
	Sailing.	Steam.	Sailing.	Steam.	On Sailing Vessels.	On Steam Vessels.
1900-4	1,244	564	258,587	419,306	1,949	2,756
1905-9	1,066	589	210,477	487,913	1,591	2,048
1910-14*	815	601	123,274	566,637	1,014	5,258
	3,125	1,754	592,338	1,473,856	4,554	10,062

* The figures of 1914, which are included, are exclusive of losses through hostile action.

These figures show (in the first place) that, while sailing vessels constitute the greater part of the total number of ships lost, the greatest loss of tonnage and lives has been in connection with steamships. In the second place, the diminution in the number of sailing vessels lost contrasts with the increase in the losses of steamships, of steam tonnage, and of lives lost at the same time.

As regards the loss of life the following figures are worthy of note:—

TOTAL LOSS OF LIVES ON SHIPS LOST IN THE PERIOD 1900-14.

On Sailing Vessels.		On Steam Vessels.	
Crew.	Passengers.	Crew.	Passengers.
4,371 183	6,897 3,165

In other words, out of the total number of 14,616 lives lost, 11,268 were those of seamen, which means that 77 per cent. of the lives lost have been those of the crews, as compared with 23 per cent. for passengers.

THE CELTIC FRINGE.

THE following comparative figures show the numbers and proportions of the monoglot Welsh population of Wales and Monmouthshire at the last two censuses:—

Census Year.	Welsh Speaking only.	Percentage of Total Population.
1901...	280,905 15·1
1911...	190,292 8·5

The proportion of those speaking both Welsh and English, viz., 35 per cent., has undergone no change.

The comparative figures for Wales (with Monmouthshire), Scotland, and Ireland, showing the proportions of the monoglot Celtic and the bilingual sections to the total population in each country at the last census are as follows:—

	Monoglot.	Bilingual.
Welsh	8·5	Welsh... 43·5
Gaelic	0·4	Scotch. 4·6
Irish	0·4	Irish ... 14·0

The figures relating to the counties in which the ancient language is most spoken are no less significant as to the position of Wales as the chief stronghold of Celtic in the British Isles.

WALES.

Percentage of the population over 3 years of age speaking Welsh.

Merionethshire.....	90·3
Cardiganshire	89·6
Anglesey.....	88·7
Carnarvonshire.....	85·6
Carmarthenshire	84·9

SCOTLAND.

Percentage of the population over 3 years of age speaking Gaelic.

Ross and Cromarty.....	67·7
Sutherland	61·8
Inverness.....	59·1
Argyll	48·4

IRELAND.

Percentage of the population over 3 years of age speaking Irish.

Galway	57·0
Mayo	48·9
Kerry.....	40·4
Clare	37·1
Donegal	37·0



FACTORY AND WORKSHOP DISEASES.

EVERY year brings with it a crop of occupational diseases, resulting in death and partial or permanent disablement. Returns of the Board of Trade show that during the year ended December, 1916, the total number of cases of poisoning, of anthrax, and of toxic jaundice, reported under the Factory and Workshop Act was 679, compared with 443 during the corresponding period of 1915. The number of deaths in 1916 was 94, as compared with 30 in 1915. In addition, 72 cases of lead poisoning (including 20 deaths) among house-painters and plumbers came to the knowledge of the Home Office

during the year 1916, compared with 127 cases (including 37 deaths) during the year 1915.

During the ten months ended October, 1917, the total number of all cases was 585, compared with 537 in corresponding period of 1916. The number of deaths in 1917 was 76, as compared with 77 in 1916. In addition, 50 cases of lead poisoning (including 17 deaths) among house-painters and plumbers came to the knowledge of the Home Office during the ten months ended October, 1917, compared with 64 cases (including 20 deaths) during the corresponding period of 1916.

THE NATIONAL BUDGET.

The following are the figures from the Budgets from 1897-8 till the outbreak of war, showing the money actually received into the Exchequer; also expenditure for each year, with surplus or deficiency. For figures and estimates during the war see article on War Finance, page 99.

Years.	Revenue.			Expenditure.			Surplus (+) or Deficiency (-). £
	Budget Estimate. £	Receipts into Exchequer. £	More (+) or less (-) than Estimate.	Budget and Supplementary Estimates. £	Issues out of the Exchequer (exclusive of Expenditure not chargeable against Revenue). £	More (+) or less (-) than Estimated. £	
1897-8	112,023,000	116,016,314	+ 3,993,314	113,871,900	112,338,304	- 1,533,596	+ 3,678,010
1898-9	116,288,000	117,857,353	+ 1,569,353	117,993,036	117,671,396	- 321,640	+ 185,957
1899-1900	120,550,000	129,804,566	+ 9,254,566	144,064,823	143,687,068	- 377,755	- 13,882,502
1900-1	137,151,000	140,124,310	+ 2,973,310	194,230,627	193,331,890	- 898,737	- 53,207,580
1901-2	152,203,000	152,712,089	+ 449,089	206,651,259	205,236,305	- 1,414,954	- 52,524,216
1902-3	161,894,000	161,319,071	- 574,929	195,138,828	194,251,081	- 887,747	- 32,932,010
1903-4	154,082,000	151,340,652	- 2,741,348	158,224,446	156,756,209	- 1,468,237	- 5,415,557
1904-5	153,086,000	153,182,782	+ 96,782	152,776,994	151,768,875	- 1,008,119	+ 1,413,907
1905-6	152,210,000	153,878,865	+ 1,668,865	151,960,528	150,413,245	- 1,547,283	+ 3,465,620
1906-7	152,590,000	155,036,486	+ 2,446,486	152,636,443	149,637,664	- 2,998,779	+ 5,398,822
1907-8	152,835,000	156,537,690	+ 3,702,690	153,444,231	151,812,094	- 1,632,137	+ 4,725,596
1908-9	153,080,000	151,578,295	- 1,501,705	154,321,699	152,292,395	- 2,029,304	+ 714,100
1909-10	162,590,000	131,696,456	- 30,893,544	163,171,000	157,944,611	- 5,226,389	+ 45,606,766
1910-11	*199,791,000	203,850,588	+ 4,059,588	174,129,000	171,995,667	- 2,133,333	+ 6,208,286
1911-12	181,621,000	185,090,285	+ 3,469,285	181,284,000	178,545,099	- 2,739,001	+ 4,547,000
1912-13	187,189,000	188,802,200	+ 1,613,000	191,556,000	188,622,000	- 2,934,000	+ 4,936,000
1913-14	194,825,000	198,243,000	+ 3,418,000	199,011,000	197,493,000	- 1,518,000	

* Including arrears of 1909-10, estimated at £30,046,000.

† The Revenue Act, 1911, directed that the income and expenditure of the years 1909-10 and 1910-11 should be aggregated for the purpose of determining the Old Sinking Fund for 1910-11.

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DIARY OF THE WAR.*

1914.

July 28th.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.
August 1st.—Germany declares war on Russia.
August 2nd.—German Ultimatum to Belgium.
August 3rd.—Germany declares war on France.
August 4th.—Great Britain declares war on Germany.
August 10th.—France declares war on Austria-Hungary.
August 12th.—Great Britain declares war on Austria.
August 15th.—Fall of Liège.
August 16th.—Expeditionary Force landed in France.
August 20th.—Brussels occupied by the Germans.
August 23rd.—Japan declares war on Germany.
August 26th.—Battle of Tannenberg.
August 28th.—British naval victory off Heligoland.
September 3rd.—Russians take Lemberg.
September 5th.—End of Retreat from Mons to the Marne.
September 6th.—Battle of the Marne begins.
October 9th.—Antwerp occupied by Germans.
October 20th.—Battle of Ypres-Armén-tières opens.
November 5th.—Great Britain declares war on Turkey.
November 7th.—Fall of Tsingtau.
November 21st.—Basra occupied by British.
December 2nd.—Austrians capture Belgrade.
December 8th.—Naval Battle off the Falklands.
December 14th.—Serbians recapture Belgrade.
December 16th.—Germans bombard West Hartlepool, Scarborough, and Whitby, killing 127 civilians.

1915.

February 2nd.—Turks defeated on Suez Canal.
February 18th.—German submarine "blockade" of England order.
February 25th.—Allied Fleet attacks Dardanelles.
March 10th.—The British capture Neuve Chapelle.
March 22nd.—Fall of Przemyśl to the Russians.
April 22nd.—Second Battle of Ypres began.
April 25th.—The Allied forces land in Gallipoli.
May 3rd.—Battle of the Dunajec.
May 7th.—The *Lusitania* torpedoed and sunk.
May 8th.—Germans occupy Libau.
May 12th.—General Botha occupies Windhuk.
May 23rd.—Italy declares war on Austria.

May 25th.—Coalition Cabinet formed.
June 2nd.—Crossing of the Isonzo by the Italian Army announced. Austrian defeat at Mikalajow.
June 3rd.—Przemysl retaken by German and Austrian forces. Surrender of Amara, on the Tigris, to the British.
June 4th.—British and French advance in Gallipoli.
June 22nd.—Austro-Germans recapture Lemberg.
July 9th.—Conquest of German South-West Africa.
August 4th.—Fall of Warsaw.
August 5th.—Fall of Ivangorod.
August 6th.—New Landing at Suvla Bay, Gallipoli.
August 8th-9th.—General Birdwood's advance at Anzac; troops fail to gain the summit of Sari Bair.
August 9th.—Important British success near Hooge.
August 15th.—The National Register taken.
August 17th.—Fall of Kovno.
August 18th.—Russian naval victory in the Gulf of Riga.
August 19th.—Fall of Novo Georgievsk.
August 21st.—Unsuccessful British advance against Anafarta Ridge, Gallipoli.
August 25th.—Fall of Brest-Litovsk.
September 2nd.—Fall of Gródno.
September 7th.—Russian victory near Tarnopol.
September 18th.—Fall of Vilna.
September 25th.—Allied advance in France. British capture the western outskirts of Hulluch and the village of Loos, and progress near Hooge; the French capture Souchez and the remainder of the Labyrinth, and in Champagne break the German lines at the Butte de Tahure and at the Navarin Farm.
September 28th.—Defeat of the Turks at Kut-el-Amara.
October 4th.—Russian Ultimatum to Bulgaria.
October 5th.—Allied Forces land at Salonika.
October 6th.—Austro-German invasion of Serbia begun; the Drina, Save, and Danube crossed.
October 14th.—Bulgaria at war with Serbia; war declared by Great Britain. Pozarevatz stormed.
November 1st.—Fall of Kraguyevatz.
November 5th.—Fall of Nish to the Bulgarians.
November 22nd.—Great battle at Ctesiphon, 18 miles from Baghdad; Turks routed and retire on Dialah.
November 23rd.—Fall of Mitrovitza and Prishtina.
December 3rd.—General Townshend reaches Kut-el-Amara.
December 9th.—Retreat of the Allies in Macedonia.
December 13th.—Allied troops safely withdrawn across Greek frontier; Salonika being fortified.

*Abbreviated from *The Times* by permission of the proprietors.

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- December 15th.—Sir John French retires from command of the Army in France and Flanders, and is succeeded by Sir Douglas Haig.
- December 17th.—Russians occupy Hamadan, Persia.
- December 19th.—Withdrawal from Anzac and Suvla Bay.
- December 25th.—Turks repulsed before Kut-el-Amara.
- December 26th.—Russian troops in Persia occupy Kashan and march on Ispahan.
- 1916.
- January 8th.—British evacuation of Gallipoli completed.
- February 16th.—Erzerum taken by Russians.
- February 21st.—Battle of Verdun begun.
- March 16th.—Fall of German Admiral von Tirpitz.
- April 24th.—Rebellion in Ireland.
- April 29th.—Fall of Kut-el-Amara.
- May 24th.—British Conscription Bill passed.
- May 31st.—Sea Battle off Coast of Jutland.
- June 5th.—Loss of Lord Kitchener and Staff.
- June 14th.—Allied Economic Conference at Paris.
- June 17th.—Fall of Czernovitz to Russian General Lechitsky.
- July 1st.—Somme Battle begun.
- August 6th.—Italian offensive on Isonzo begun.
- August 27th.—Roumania enters war.
- August 29th.—Hindenburg appointed Chief of German General Staff.
- September 3rd.—British take Guillemont. Zeppelin destroyed in flames at Cuffley.
- September 26th.—British capture Thiepval and Combes.
- November 13th.—British victory on Ancre.
- November 29th.—Sir David Beatty in command of British Grand Fleet.
- December 5th.—Resignation of Mr. Asquith.
- December 7th.—Mr. Lloyd George Prime Minister.
- December 12th.—German "peace proposals."
- December 15th.—French victory at Verdun.
- December 20th.—President Wilson's Peace Note.
- 1917.
- January 31st.—Germany announces "unrestricted" submarine warfare.
- February 3rd.—Breach between United States and Germany.
- February 24th.—Kut-el-Amara taken by British.
- March 11th.—British take Baghdad.
- March 12th.—Revolution in Russia.
- March 18th.—British troops enter Peronne.
- April 5th.—United States declare war on Germany.
- April 9th.—Battle of Vimy Ridge begun.
- May 4th.—French take Craonne.
- May 14th.—Italian offensive begun.
- May 15th.—General Pétain in command of French Army.
- May 16th.—Coalition Government in Russia with Prince Lvoff as Prime Minister.
- June 7th.—British victory at Messines Ridge.
- June 12th.—Abdication of King Constantine of Greece.
- June 26th.—Arrival of first American contingent in France.
- June 29th.—General Allenby in command in Egypt.
- July 1st.—Russian offensive begun.
- July 14th.—Fall of German Imperial Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg.
- July 31st.—Third Battle of Ypres begun.
- August 1st.—Germans capture St. Julien and part of Westhoek.
- August 2nd.—British re-establish their advanced line near the Ypres-Roulers railway.
- August 3rd.—British retake St. Julien.
- August 4th.—Third Anniversary of Britain's entry into the war. M. Kerensky withdraws his resignation and reconstructs the Government.
- August 10th.—The Labour Party Conference decides to send delegates to Stockholm. British recapture Westhoek.
- August 11th.—Mr. Arthur Henderson resigns from the War Cabinet.
- August 14th.—The Pope addresses a Note to belligerents and neutrals making a new appeal for peace.
- August 15th.—Canadian troops storm the German positions between Lens and Loos: Hill 70 and several mining suburbs of Lens captured.
- August 16th.—British capture Langemarck and over 1,800 prisoners.
- August 17th.—Canadians occupy part of the Lens defences.
- August 19th.—British make a successful advance north-east of Ypres.
- August 20th.—French attack at Verdun: German defences captured on a front of 11 miles and 4,000 prisoners taken.
- August 21st.—Canadians capture German positions on a front of 2,000 yards north and west of Lens.
- August 24th.—Italians capture Monte Santo.
- August 26th.—French advance north of Verdun.
- August 28th.—Enemy advance in Roumania: breakdown of the Russian defence.
- August 29th.—President Wilson replies to the Pope's Peace Note.
- September 3rd.—Germans occupy Riga.
- September 8th.—General Korniloff demands from Kerensky the military and civil power of a dictator.
- September 13th.—Korniloff's troops surrender and the general commanding commits suicide.
- September 20th.—British attack on an eight-mile front east of Ypres, making important gains and taking over 3,000 prisoners.
- September 22nd.—Heavy German counter-attack on the Ypres-Menin road repulsed.
- September 26th.—British attack east and north-east of Ypres, capturing Zonnebeke and 1,614 prisoners. Kerensky resigns office on the Bureau of the Petrograd Soviet.

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- September 29th.—Ramadiéh, on the Euphrates, captured by General Maude. Several thousand prisoners taken, including the Turkish commander.
- October 4th.—British advance on an eight-mile front east of Ypres, capturing the greater part of Poelcappelle and 4,446 prisoners.
- October 9th.—Allies attack east and north of Ypres. French capture Mangelaere, and the British advance to Houthulst Forest.
- October 12th.—British attack on a six-mile front north-east of Ypres; heavy rain hampers the advance.
- October 14th.—Germans occupy Arensburg, the capital of Oesel; Russian forces driven to the island of Moon.
- October 17th.—Germans drive the Russian fleet from the Gulf of Riga and capture Moon Island. One Russian battleship sunk.
- October 22nd.—Allied troops make successful attacks on both sides of the Ypres-Staden railway; southern defences of Houthulst Forest captured.
- October 23rd.—French advance over two miles towards Laon and take 7,500 prisoners.
- October 24th.—An Austro-German offensive opens on a front of 25 miles on the Upper Isonzo. Italian line forced back across the river at several points.
- October 25th.—Germans cross the Italian frontier and take over 30,000 prisoners.
- October 28th.—Enemy enters the Venetian Plain; Gorizia re-entered, and the number of prisoners increased to 100,000.
- October 30th.—Canadians reach outskirts of Passchendaele. Udine captured.
- November 2nd.—Gaza first-line defences captured on a front of 5,000 yards.
- November 6th.—Canadian troops capture Passchendaele and two hamlets.
- November 7th.—British capture Gaza and advance north of the town. The Russian Maximalists seize the Parliament building, the State Bank, and the Telegraph Offices in Petrograd.
- November 9th.—Supreme War Council formed among the Western Allies.
- November 10th.—British left wing reaches Ashdod. Enemy captures Asiago and Belluno and drives the Italians across the Lower Piave.
- November 17th.—Jaffa occupied. Five submarines destroyed by the British.
- November 18th.—General Sir Stanley Maude dies in Mesopotamia. British within 12 miles of Jerusalem.
- November 20th.—British made a series of attacks between St. Quentin and the Scarpe, breaking through the Hindenburg line to a depth of five miles and taking over 8,000 prisoners.
- November 21st.—British make further advances west and south-west of Cambrai and capture the villages of Fontaine Notre Dame and Noyelles.
- November 22nd.—Germans retake Fontaine Notre Dame.
- November 25th.—British capture Bourlon Wood.
- November 28th.—Krylenko, the Bolshevik Commander-in-Chief, announces that the Germans have consented to begin peace negotiations.
- December 9th.—Fall of Jerusalem.

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SOCIETY—LIMITED

AGENTS: The Co-operative Wholesale Society, Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and London; and the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society, Glasgow.

INTERNATIONAL DIRECTORY OF CO-OPERATIVE ORGANISATIONS.

International Co-operative Alliance (established 1895): 14, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London, S.W.1. Secretary: H. J. May.

UNITED KINGDOM.

For a complete list of Co-operative Bodies in the United Kingdom see pages 80 to 84.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Zentralverband österreichischer Konsumvereine: Kolingasse 19, Vienna. (Central Union of Austrian Distributive Societies.) Established 1904.

Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft österreichischer Konsumvereine: Kolingasse 19, Vienna. (Austrian Co-operative Wholesale.) Established 1905.

Allgemeiner Verband der auf Selbsthilfe beruhenden Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften: Lindengasse 5, Vienna. (The General Union is a composite organisation).

Hangya a Magyar Gazdaszi vetség Foggyasztási és Ertekesítő Svövetkezete: Közraktár-utca, Buda-Pesth. (The Hangya Co-operative Wholesale.) Established 1898.

Magyarországi szövetség svövetsege (General Co-operative Agricultural Union): Alkotmány-utca 31, Buda-Pesth.

Ustřední československých družstev v Praze (Central Association of Czech-Slav Co-operative Societies, Prague). Established 1907.

Velkonákupní společnost konsumních družstev v Praze (Co-operative Wholesale Society, Prague). Established 1909.

BELGIUM.

Fédération des Sociétés coopératives belges, Brussels (established 1901.) Secretary: Victor Serwy. Office coopératif belges, Brussels.

DENMARK.

Fællesforeningen for Danmarks Brugsforeninger: Copenhagen. (The Danish Distributive Wholesale.) Established 1896.

Andelsudvalget: Nybrogade 32, Copenhagen. (The All-Danish Co-operative Board).

FINLAND.

Suomen Osuuskauppojen Keskusosuuskunta r.l. (The Finnish Co-operative Wholesale Society): Helsingfors. Established 1904.

Pellervo Society, Helsingfors. Secretary: Onni Karhunen. (Society for the Promotion and Propagation of Co-operation.) Established 1901.

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FRANCE.

Fédération nationale des Co-operatives de Consommation: 208, Rue St. Maur, Paris. Chairman: Charles Gide. Secretaries: A. Daudé-Bancel and E. Poisson. (National Federation of Distributive Co-operative Societies.) Established 1912.

Magasin de Gros des Cooperatives de France: 208, Rue St. Maur, Paris. (The French Co-operative Wholesale.) Established 1913.

GERMANY.

Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine: Beim Strohhaus 38, Hamburg. Secretary: Heinrich Kaufmann. (Central Union of German Distributive Co-operative Societies.) Established 1903.

Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft deutscher Konsumvereine: Beim Strohhaus 38, Hamburg. (The Wholesale of the Central Union.) Established 1892.

Allgemeiner Verband der auf Selbsthilfe beruhenden Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften: Berlinerstrasse 102, Charlottenburg, Berlin. (The General or Composite Union, founded in 1864 by Schulze-Delitzsch.)

Reichsverband der deutschen landwirtschaftlichen Genossenschaften: Bernburgerstrasse 21, Berlin. (Imperial Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies.) Established 1883.

Generalverband ländlicher Genossenschaften für Deutschland: Köthenerstrasse 40-41, Berlin. (The Raiffeisen Organisation.) Established 1877.

Hauptverband deutscher gewerblichen Genossenschaften: Berlin. (Head Union of German Operative Co-operative Societies.) Established 1901.

HOLLAND.

Nederlandsche Coöperatieve Bond: Jan van Nassaustraat 93, The Hague. Secretary: H. van der Mandere. (The Co-operative Union.) Established 1889.

Coöperatieve Groothandelsvereniging „De Handelskamer”: Ruigeplaatweg 29, Rotterdam. President: J. Warmolts. (The Co-operative Wholesale.) Established 1890.

Nederlandsche Coöperatieve Vrouwenbond. Secretary: Mej. Marg. Meijboom, Westerbro, Rijswijk (Z.H.). (Women's Co-operative Guild).

Bond van Nederlandsche Arbeiderscoöperaties: Tolstraat 61, Amsterdam. (Union of Workers' Productive Societies.) Established 1907.

Bond van Coöperatieve Vereenigingen in Nederland, Hertogenbosch. (R.C. Co-operative Union.) Established 1902.

Allgemeene Nederlandsche Zuivelbond: Hugo de Grootstraat 13, The Hague. (Union of Dairy Societies.) Established 1900.

Coöperatieve Centrale Boerenleenbank, Eindhoven. (Farmers' Co-operative Credit Bank).

ITALY.

Lega Nazionale delle Cooperative, Via Pace, Milan. (National League of Co-operative Societies.) Established 1886.

Consorzio Italiano delle Cooperative di Consumo, Milan. (The Italian Wholesale).

NORWAY.

Norges Kooperative Landsforening, 4, Kirkegaden, Christiania. Chairman: O. Dehli. (The Norwegian Co-operative Wholesale.) Established 1906.

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POLAND.

Związek stowarzyszeń spożywczych, Warsaw. (Union of Consumers' Societies.) Established 1911.

ROUMANIA.

Casa Centrale a Bancelor populare si cooperative-lor, Bucharest. (Co-operative Credit Banking Central.) Established 1903.

RUSSIA.

Moskovsky Soyuz Potrebiteľnykh Obshtshestv: Moscow. (Moscow Union of Consumers' Societies.) Established 1898.

Komitet o selskych ssudosberegatelnykh i promyshlennyykh tovarishtshestvach, Petrograd. (Rural Savings and Industrial Associations Committee).

Soyuz Sibirskikh Maslodyelnykh Artelei: Kurgan, Siberia. (Union of Siberian Creamery Associations.) Established 1908. London Offices: New Hibernia Chambers, London Bridge.

Central Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies, Petrograd.

SERBIA.

General Union of Serbian Agricultural Co-operative Societies, Belgrade. Established 1895.

SPAIN.

Camara Regional des Sociudades Cooperativas de Cataluña, Barcelona. (Catalonian Wholesale.) Established 1900.

Federacion de las Cooperativas Integrales y Populares, Madrid.

SWEDEN.

Kooperativa Föbundet i Sverige: Stadsgården 12, Stockholm. (Co-operative Union of Sweden.) Established 1899.

SWITZERLAND.

Verband schweizerischer Konsumvereine: Thiersteineralle 14, Bâle. (Union of Swiss Distributive Co-operative Societies.) Established 1890.

Verband Ost-schweizerischer landwirtschaftlicher Genossenschaften, Winterthur. (Union of East Swiss Agricultural Co-operative Societies.) Established 1886.

JAPAN.

Central Union of Distributive and other Co-operative Societies, Tokio. Established 1903.

INDIA.

Co-operative Union of India, Benares.

CANADA.

Canadian Co-operative Concern, Hamilton, Ontario.

UNITED STATES.

Co-operative League, New York.

The Right Relationship League, 432-434, Guarants Building, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

CO-OPERATIVE PRESS DIRECTORY.

THE UNITED KINGDOM.

- Co-operative News:** Long Millgate, Manchester. News organ for the British movement. Issued by the Co-operative Newspaper Society Limited. Weekly, 1d. Established 1871. Editor: W. M. Bamford.
- Scottish Co-operator:** 263, Wallace Street, Kingston, Glasgow. Issued by the S.C.W.S. Weekly, 1d. Established 1900. Editor: Dr. Henry Dyer.
- Irish Homestead:** 34, Lower Abbey Street, Dublin. Official organ of the Irish Agricultural Organisation Society. Weekly, 1d. Established 1895. Editor: G. W. Russell.
- Producer:** 1, Balloon Street, Manchester. Technical organ for the British movement. Issued by the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited. Monthly, 2d. Established 1916. Editor: James Haslam.
- Wheatsheaf:** 1, Balloon Street, Manchester. Organ for household propaganda. Issued by the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited. Monthly. Established 1897. Editor: Percy Redfern.
- Millgate Monthly:** Long Millgate, Manchester. A magazine of progress. Illustrated. Monthly, 3d.
- Our Circle:** Long Millgate, Manchester. A magazine for young people. Monthly. Editor: Mrs. A. Bamford-Tomlinson.
- Co-operative Educator:** Holyoake House, Hanover Street, Manchester. Educational organ of the Co-operative Union Limited. Established December, 1916. Quarterly, 2d. Editor: F. Hall.
- A.U.C.E. Journal:** 22, Long Millgate, Manchester. Official organ of the Amalgamated Union of Co-operative and Commercial Employés and Allied Workers. Monthly. Editor: A. Hewitt.
- International Co-operative Bulletin:** 14, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London, S.W.1. Official organ of the International Co-operative Alliance. Monthly. Established 1908. Editor: H. J. May.
- Russian Co-operator:** Published monthly at 83, Finsbury Pavement, London, E.C.4, in the interest of Russian co-operation. Established December, 1917.
- C.W.S. Annual:** 1, Balloon Street, Manchester, and 95, Morrison Street, Glasgow. Issued jointly by the C.W.S. and S.C.W.S. Established 1880.
- Copartnership:** 6, Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C. Monthly, 1d.

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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

- Der Konsumverein:** Kolingasse 19, Vienna. Organ of the Central Union of Austrian Co-operative Societies. Fortnightly. Established 1903. Also **Für Unsere Hausmütter.** Issued as a household supplement to the **Konsumverein.**
- Die Genossenschaft:** Vienna. Official organ of the General Union or Allgemeine Verband. Monthly. Established 1872.
- Oesterreichische Landwirtschaftliche Genossenschaftspresse:** Schaufelgasse 6, Vienna. Organ of agricultural co-operation. Fortnightly. Established 1904.
- Szovetkezes:** Szenkiralify 40, Buda-Pesth. Issued by the "Hangya" Wholesale Society. Bi-weekly.
- Mezőgazdak:** Buda-Pesth. Organ of agricultural co-operation.
- Odrodzenie (Regeneration):** Plac Smolki 3, Lemburg, Galicia. Organ of the (Galician-Polish) Union of Co-operative Credit and Productive Societies. Fortnightly. Established 1874 under the name of **Zwiazek (Union).** Transformed 1909. Editor: Edward Milewski.
- Zjednoczenie (Union):** Plac Smolki 3, Lemburg, Galicia. Organ of the (Galician-Polish) Union of Distributive and Productive Societies. Monthly. Established 1914. Editor: Edward Milewski.
- Družstevnik (Co-operator):** Palackého 63, Prague, Bohemia. Organ of the Union of Czech-Slavonic Co-operative Societies. Monthly. Established 1909. Monthly Supplement: **Prükopnik.** Editor: Ferdinand Jirasek.

BELGIUM.

- La Coopération.** Organ of the Belgian Federation of Co-operative Societies. Established 1902. Editor: Victor Serwy.
- Les Coopérateurs Belges:** 17, Rue James Watt, Brussels. Monthly. Established 1886. Editor: Louis Bertrand.

BULGARIA.

- Vsaimnost (Mutuality):** Sofia. Organ of agricultural co-operation.

DENMARK.

- Andelsbladet (Co-operative Journal):** Mørksgade 18², Aarhus. The joint and general organ of co-operation in Denmark. Issued by the Joint Co-operative Board. Weekly. Editor: Anders Nielsen.

FINLAND.

- Yhteishyvä (The Common Weal):** Helsingfors. Official organ of the Finnish Co-operative Wholesale Society. Weekly. Established 1905. Editor: E. Linna.
- Samarbete (Co-operation).** Issued by the Finnish Wholesale for the benefit of the Swedish-speaking members of the movement. Monthly. Editor: Th. Hasselblatt.
- Osuuskauppaväen Kalenteri (the Co-operative Calendar):** The Co-operative Annual of the Finnish Wholesale. Established 1909.
- Pellervo:** Helsingfors. Propagandist organ issued by the Pellervo Society. Established 1900. Editor: Dr. Hannes Gebhard.

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FRANCE.

- Action Cooperative:** 208, Rue St. Maur, Paris. Organ of the National Federation of French Co-operative Societies. Fortnightly. Established 1912. Editors: A. Daudé-Bancel and E. Poisson.
- L'Emancipation:** Esplanade, Nimes. Journal of political and social economy. Monthly. Established 1887. Editor: Emile de Boyne.
- Le Consommateur:** 1, Rue Christine, Paris. Organ of the Consumers' League. Monthly. Established 1911.
- Association Ouvrière:** 84, Boulevard de Sebastopol, Paris. Official organ of productive co-operation. Issued three times per month. Established 1894.

GERMANY.

- Konsumgenossenschaftliche Rundschau (Co-operative Review):** 36, Beim Strohhaus, Hamburg. Official organ of the Central Union of German Distributive Co-operative Societies. Weekly. Established 1904. Editor: Dr. August Müller.
- Konsumgenossenschaftliches Volksblatt (Co-operative People's Journal).** The household propagandist periodical of the Central Union. Established 1904. Editor: Dr. A. Müller.
- Blätter für Genossenschaftswesen (Journal of Co-operation):** Berlinerstrasse, Charlottenburg, Berlin. Official organ of the Allgemeine Verband—the composite union originally instituted by Schulze-Delitzsch. Weekly. Established 1882. Editor: Dr. Hans Crüger.
- Landwirtschaftliches Genossenschaftsblatt (Agricultural Co-operative Journal):** Köthenerstrasse 40-41, Berlin, W. Official organ of the Raiffeisen Union of Agricultural Credit Societies. Fortnightly. Established 1888. Editor: A. Buchdrucker.
- Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Genossenschaftspresse (German Agricultural Co-operative Press):** Berlin. Organ of the Reichsverband or Imperial Union. Weekly. Established 1899.
- Deutsches Genossenschaftsblatt:** Eichhornstrasse 5, Berlin, W. Organ of the Hauptverband, or Head Union of Operative Societies.

HOLLAND.

- De Coöperator:** Jan van Nassaustraat 93, The Hague. Official organ of the Co-operative Union of the Netherlands. Fortnightly. Established 1913. A continuance of the Co-operative Monthly, established 1904. Editor: Secretary of the Union.
- De Coöperatiegids (Co-operative Guide):** Tolstraat 61, Amsterdam. Organ of the Union of Workers Productive Co-operative Societies. Monthly. Established 1911. Edited by the Board.
- Koöperatief Volksblad (Co-operative People's Journal).** Issued by the Union last named. Bi-monthly. Established 1916. Editor: K. de Boer.
- Mededeelingen (Communications):** Jansveld 25, Utrecht. Issued by the R.C. Union of Co-operative Societies. Issued every two months. Established 1916.
- Official Organ of the General Dairy Union of the Netherlands:** Hugo de Grootstraat 13, The Hague. Weekly. Established 1906. Editor: The Secretary of the Union.

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ITALY.

- La Cooperazione Italiana:** Via Pace, Milan. Official organ of the National League of Co-operative Societies. Weekly. Established 1886. Director: Antonio Vergnanini.
- La Nuova Fede (The New Faith).** Issued monthly by the National League.
- Cooperazione Rurale:** Piazza Borghese, Rome. Organ of agricultural co-operation. Monthly.

NORWAY.

- Kooperatøren:** Kirkegaten 4, Christiania. Organ of the Norwegian Wholesale Co-operative Society. Monthly. Established 1906.

ROUMANIA.

- Cuneral Bancelor Populare:** Bucharest. Organ of co-operative credit banking.

RUSSIA.

- Soyuz Potrebitelei (Union of Consumers):** Novaya Perebenedovka, Moscow. Organ of the Moscow Union of Co-operative Societies. Weekly. Established 1903. Editor: N. L. Selheim.
- Obedinenie (Unification) and Obshtshe Dyelo (The Common Cause).** Popular monthlies issued by the Moscow Union for the behoof of town co-operators and rural co-operators respectively.
- Vyestnik Kooperatsii (Messenger of Co-operation):** Ulitsa Zhukovskavo, Petrograd. Issued by the Petrograd Section of the Committee for Rural Loan-savings and Industrial Associations. A monthly journal dealing with the theory and practice of co-operation, both in Russia and elsewhere. Established 1909. Editor: Professor Tugan-Baranovsky.
- Narodnaya Gazeta (People's Paper):** Kurgan, Western Siberia. Weekly organ of the Siberian Union of Creamery Associations. Established 1906.
- Artelnoe Dyelo:** Ulitsa Zhukovskavo 38, Petrograd. Monthly organ of the Society for the Promotion of Operative Associations. Established 1915. Editor: E. Maximov.
- Vyestnik Kuctarnoy Promyshlennosti:** Ulitsa Zhukovskavo 38, Petrograd. Official organ of the Peasant Industries Organisation. Monthly. Established 1913. Editor: E. Maximov.
- N.B.—In addition to the above there are about a score of provincial co-operative periodicals.

SERBIA.

- Potrosacka Zadruga:** Belgrade. Organ of distributive co-operation. Established 1905.
- Zemljoradnicka Zadruga.** Organ of agricultural co-operation. Established 1895.

SWEDEN.

- Kooperatøren:** Stadsgården 12, Stockholm Sö. Official organ of the Co-operative Union. Monthly. Established 1914. Editor: Anders Örne.
- Konsumentbladet (Consumers' Journal).** Weekly periodical of the Co-operative Union. Established 1914. Editor: Anders Örne.

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SWITZERLAND.

Schweiz Konsum-Verein: Thiersteinerallee 14, Bâle. Official organ of the Swiss Co-operative Union. Weekly. Established 1901. Editor: Dr. Henry Faucherre.

Genossenschaftliches Volksblatt, La Coopération, and La Co-operazione: Popular fortnightly periodicals issued by the Co-operative Union for the German-speaking, French-speaking, and Italian-speaking sections of the movement respectively.

Samenkörner (Grains of Corn): Popular monthly, also issued by the Swiss Co-operative Union.

Genossenschafter (Co-operator): Winterthur. The official organ of the Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies in East Switzerland.

AUSTRALIA.

Co-operator: Sydney, New South Wales. Monthly.

CANADA.

Canadian Co-operator: Ottawa, Ontario.

U.S.A.

Co-operative Manager and Farmer: Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Co-operative World: Toledo, Ohio. Organ of the Homestead Association.

Llano Colonist: Organ of the Llano del Rio Co-operative Colony, California. Weekly.

Western Comrade: Of the same Colony. Monthly.

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STATISTICS OF THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION.

THE status of the Co-operative Union (which embraces the whole industrial co-operative movement with the exception of a minor fraction) is writ large in the figures for 1916, which show a collective membership (individuals and organisations combined) of over 3½ millions, a capital (share and loan) of over 67¼ millions sterling, sales verging on 200 million pounds, a net surplus of nearly 20 million pounds, an army of employes figuring at close on 160,000, and a salaries and wages bill totalling up to nearly 11 million pounds. The figures are no less eloquent as regards the progress made during the year, signifying as they do of the increase of share and loan capital to the extent of over 5 million pounds, of the increase of sales to the amount of over 32¼ million pounds, of the increase of surplus to the amount of over 2 million pounds, and of the increase by 3,336 of the total staff of employes, coupled with an increase in the total of wages and salaries paid to the amount of over £900,000. More eloquent still are the figures covering the period 1913-16, which show how the co-operative movement has borne the trying ordeal of war-time.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION IN 1916.

Class.	Number of Societies	Number of Members.	Share and Loan Capital.	Sales.	Net Profit.	Number of Employes.	Salaries and Wages.
Distributive Societies	1,362	3,520,227	£ 53,322,352	£ 121,688,550	£ 16,335,079	115,651	£ 7,452,616
" Federations	5	60	27,345	122,502	9,662	27	2,189
Productive Societies.	101	35,142	1,771,604	4,461,491	333,842	10,284	732,106
Supply Associations.	4	8,560	435,239	3,402,308	92,328	1,661	196,866
Special Societies	6	420	52,822	408,110	27,311	470	34,552
Wholesale Societies..	3	1,832	11,739,446	67,212,361	2,351,799	30,622	2,419,746
Total, 1916	1,481	3,566,241	67,348,808	197,295,322	19,150,021	158,715	10,838,075
" 1915	1,497	3,310,524	62,230,430	165,034,195	17,003,956	155,379	9,928,926
" 1914	1,510	3,188,140	58,704,695	138,473,025	15,204,098	148,264	9,213,464
" 1913	1,508	3,011,390	54,919,381	130,035,894	14,260,414	142,995	8,491,448

THE RETAIL DISTRIBUTIVE SOCIETIES.

The allocation of the retail societies (1916) was as follows:—

	Number of Societies.	Member-ship.	Share and Loan Capital.	Sales.	Net Profit.*
English.....	1,061	2,979,571	£ 44,095,693	£ 96,745,520	£ 12,459,874
Scottish	261	514,327	8,970,567	24,065,214	3,809,658
Irish	40	26,329	256,092	877,816	65,547
Total	1,362	3,520,227	53,322,352	121,688,550	16,335,079

* Before deducting share interest.

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While the figures of the retail societies of the Union are sufficiently striking to speak for themselves, the specific figures of increase are worthy of note. Thus, in 1916, the membership increased by 255,000 odd, the share and loan capital by close on £4,500,000, the sales by over £19,000,000, the net surplus by nearly £1,400,000, the total employed staff by 6,200, and the wages bill by over £700,000. For the period 1913-16 the increase has been one of record dimensions, as shown by the following figures of growth during the three years in question:—Membership increase, over 640,000; increase in share and loan capital, nearly £10,720,000; sales increase, over £38,000,000; increase of surplus, nearly £3,500,000; increase in staff, over 12,000; and in wages, over £1,500,000.

RETAIL DISTRIBUTIVE SOCIETIES, 1913-16.

	Number of Societies	Total Membership.	Share and Loan Capital.	Sales	Net Profit.*	Number of Employés.	Salaries and Wages.
			£	£	£		£
1913...	1,387	2,878,648	42,601,765	83,590,374	12,851,303	103,452	5,903,943
1914...	1,390	3,054,297	46,317,939	87,964,229	13,501,825	103,074	6,319,967
1915...	1,375	3,264,811	48,848,596	102,557,779	14,960,086	109,449	6,749,725
1916...	1,362	3,520,227	53,322,352	121,688,550	16,335,079	115,651	7,452,616

* Before deducting share interest.

In 1916 the share capital amounted to £47,153,203, as compared with £39,573,049 in 1914, an increase of £7,580,154 in a couple of years. In 1916 the loan capital amounted to £6,169,149 and the reserve funds to £3,389,194, the loan capital having increased by £462,528 and the reserve funds by £234,143 since the previous year.

Meantime, the productive activities of retail societies are attested by the fact that in 1914 the number of workers classed as engaged in productive operations amounted to 25,988, and in 1916 to 27,129, the figures constituting a percentage of 25·21 and 23·46 respectively of the collective body of employés in the retail societies. Thus, practically one-fourth of the employés are engaged on the productive side, and the extent of the scale of operations may be seen by reference to the figures given in the general summary of the co-operative movement in the United Kingdom on a later page.

PRODUCTIVE SOCIETIES.

As regards the productive societies connected with the Union (*i.e.*, societies apart from the Wholesales and the retail societies), it will be seen from the subjoined table that in 1916 the membership increased by 230, the capital by over £83,000, the trade by over

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£600,000, and the surplus by practically £17,000, although the employed staff and the total wages show a diminution.

Year.	Number of Societies.	Membership.	Share and Loan Capital.	Trade.	Surplus.	Number of Employés.	Wages.
1913...	108	34,662	£ 1,701,033	£ 3,710,234	£ 253,014	10,442	£ 596,380
1914...	108	36,880	1,822,349	3,800,627	276,792	10,725	613,555
1915...	103	34,912	1,688,118	3,869,052	316,896	10,657	634,921
1916...	101	35,142	1,771,604	4,461,491	333,842	10,284	732,106

In 1916 the share capital figured at £869,210 and the loan capital at £902,394, the figures signifying a diminution of £118,403 in the former case, and an increase of £67,658 in the latter, as compared with the figures for 1914.

SUPPLY ASSOCIATIONS.

From the figures below it will be seen that the trade figures of the supply associations show a notable increase despite the lessened membership and capital. As in other cases, the rise in prices has to be taken into account.

Year.	Number of Societies.	Membership.	Share and Loan Capital.	Trade.	Surplus.	Workers.	Wages.
1913...	4	95,061	£ 563,240	£ 2,078,661	£ 49,231	1,956	£ 179,688
1914...	4	95,117	572,010	2,030,245	41,470	2,099	183,528
1915...	4	8,473	483,951	3,289,360	54,151	1,799	172,167
1916...	4	8,560	435,239	3,402,308	92,328	1,667	196,866

In 1916 the share capital amounted to £370,582 and the loan capital to £64,657, as compared with a share capital of £380,745 and a loan capital of £194,265 in 1914.

THE ENGLISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

The striking dimensions of the trade figures of the C.W.S. are attested by the subjoined statistics, showing sales amounting to nearly 52½ millions sterling for 1916, signifying an increase for the year amounting to over £9,000,000, whilst the share and loan capital increased by £467,000, and the net profits by £432,000.

Year.	Society Members.	Total Share and Loan Capital.	Wholesale Distributive Trade.	Net Profit.	Number of Workers.	Wages.
1913	1,168	£ 6,320,763	£ 31,371,976	£ 636,119	20,994	£ 1,383,254
1914	1,193	6,301,017	34,910,813	840,069	23,190	1,539,354
1915	1,195	6,641,598	43,101,747	1,086,962	23,924	1,777,406
1916	1,189	7,109,291	52,230,074	1,519,005	22,215	1,819,727

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In 1916 the share capital amounted to £2,653,774 and the loan capital to £4,455,517, as compared with £2,130,959 and £4,170,058 respectively for 1914. The resources of the Wholesale, however, are considerably in excess of these figures. Thus, taking shares, loans, deposits, trade and bank reserve funds, insurance fund, and reserved balances together, the total capital of the Wholesale figures as follows:—1913, £8,829,417; 1914, £9,657,829; 1915, £10,782,418; and in 1916, £13,231,638.

In 1916 the turnover of the productive works figured at £16,263,500, as compared with £12,812,956 in 1915.

THE SCOTTISH CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

Year.	Society Members	Share and Loan Capital.	Wholesale Distributive Trade.	Net Profit.	Number of Workers.	Wages.	Bonus.
		£	£	£		£	£
1913...	268	3,696,415	8,964,033	340,730	8,685	405,815	16,583
1914...	266	4,130,170	9,425,383	393,115	8,877	530,378	18,783
1915...	264	4,464,633	11,363,075	456,516	9,103	554,634	13,017
1916...	262	4,564,637	14,502,410	501,531	8,307	593,165	12,614

In 1916 the share capital amounted to £522,454 and the loan capital to £4,042,183, as compared with a share capital of £477,010 and a loan capital of £3,653,160 in 1914. Taking share capital, deposits, and reserve and insurance funds together, the society's resources amounted in 1913 to £4,468,463, in 1914 to £4,954,914, in 1915 to £5,298,920, and in 1916 to £5,493,351.

In 1916 the transfers from the 41 productive establishments amounted to £4,708,103.

THE IRISH AGRICULTURAL WHOLESALE SOCIETY.

Year.	Society Members.	Total Share and Loan Capital.	Wholesale Distributive Trade.	Surplus.	Number of Workers.	Total Wages.
		£	£	£		£
1914	—	—	—	—	—	—
1915	219	28,225	375,379	3,141	81	5,400
1916	264	65,518	479,877	4,989	100	6,854

In 1916 the share capital amounted to £15,819 and the loan capital to £49,699, as compared with figures of £12,158 and £16,067 in 1915.

CO-OPERATIVE STATISTICS FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1915.

FOR a review of co-operation in all its forms it is necessary to resort to the official figures given for 1915, which happen to be the latest available, and cover a wider area than those of the Co-operative Union. These statistics enable the reader to survey the entire field of co-operation, and to judge of its operations and dimensions both as a whole and in parts. And, as the distributive movement figures as the triton among the minnows, we shall, in this instance, change the official order of procedure, and accord the movement first place.

DISTRIBUTIVE TRADING SOCIETIES.

The "general supply stores," with their 1,380 societies (making returns), their membership of over $3\frac{1}{4}$ millions, sales approximating to £106,000,000, and surplus for disposal amounting to nearly £15,000,000, occupy almost the entire field. The sales, it may be noted, indicate an increase of £17,000,000 on those for 1914, and represent £33. 14s. per member, as compared with £30. 11s. 7d. for the preceding year; whilst the figures of membership represent an increase of 232,000, or 7.7 per cent., as compared with the 5.7 per cent. increase during 1914. The societies employed 109,000 work-people, of whom 27,000, or about a fourth of the whole, were engaged in productive operations; and the bonus to employes amounted to £74,000, as compared with £48,000 for 1914, an increase largely accounted for by the inclusion of war bonus in the case of many societies. The average sales per distributive employe amounted to £1,295.

The table on the following page shows the distribution of general supply stores throughout the United Kingdom, and it may be stated that the net value of the productions of the two Wholesales amounted to nearly $15\frac{3}{4}$ million pounds, *i.e.*, 12 millions for the English Wholesale, and close on $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions for the Scottish. "The imports of the English Wholesale direct from colonial and foreign countries amounted to the value of $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions. It is noteworthy that four millions of this foreign trade represents purchases of butter, bacon, and eggs from Denmark."

District.	Number of Societies.	Average Membership per Society.	SALES.		SHARE CAPITAL.	
			Total.	Per Member.*	Total.	Per Member.
			£	£	£	£
ENGLAND AND WALES—						
Northern	486	3,185	49,914,753	33.1	23,788,023	15.4
North Midland.....	178	2,464	12,285,965	29.3	5,256,976	12.0
South Midland	53	1,425	1,784,230	24.4	790,102	10.5
Eastern.....	43	2,643	2,799,072	26.6	1,013,881	9.3
London and Home Counties.....	85	3,225	9,654,891	37.8	2,708,927	9.9
Southern and Western	152	1,710	6,369,956	26.7	2,595,508	10.0
Wales	98	785	3,016,917	41.7	625,908	8.1
SCOTLAND—						
Mid-Scotland	211	1,967	17,782,521	44.0	5,993,326	14.4
North and South Scotland	43	811	1,345,231	39.3	460,610	13.2
IRELAND	31	739	680,225	31.4	187,818	8.2
Total	1,380	2,359	105,903,761	33.7	43,421,079	13.3

* Based on the mean membership.

WHOLESALE SOCIETIES.

Membership.	Sales.	"Profit" for Disposal.	Total Salaries and Wages.	Capital (Share, Loan, and Deposits).	
					£
English C.W.S.*	†1,195	43,101,747	1,196,959	1,358,066	£8,634,612
Scottish C.W.S.	‡910	11,368,364	512,125	554,635	4,406,810
Total, 1915	2,105	54,470,111	1,709,084	1,912,701	11,041,422
" 1914	2,057	44,342,506	1,376,650	1,689,173	10,410,085
" 1913	2,022	40,340,349	1,205,956	1,473,891	9,988,233
" 1912	1,432	38,126,329	1,030,281	1,131,072	8,372,456

* Excluding particulars of Banking Department, which are included in the Summary on a later page.
 † Including 264 societies and 646 employes, § Share and loan capital, || Share capital and deposits, ‡ Societies.

GENERAL SUMMARY, 1915.

The following is the general summary of co-operative statistics as given in the report of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies:—

	Number of Returns.	Number of Members.	Sales or Income from Business.	Profit for Disposal.†	Total Salaries and Wages.	Capital (Shares, Loans, and Deposits).
			£	£	£	£
Agricultural Societies—						
Agricultural Industries and Trades.....	983	115,784	7,809,767	153,394	169,921	709,252
" Wholesale Societies	4	556	568,752	6,259	7,357	46,260
" Businesses	63	9,753	33,115	2,613	13,774	77,247
" Credit Societies	4	55	1,482	(-232)	250	3,693
" Small Holdings and Allotments Societies	180	17,750	43,733	623	1,891	37,432
Total Agricultural Societies	1,234	143,898	8,456,849	162,657	193,193	873,884
Distributive Trading Societies	1,484	3,299,588	106,803,439	14,924,511	6,929,771	49,542,435
Productive Societies	153	51,470	5,281,110	380,676	751,280	1,946,173
Wholesale Societies	3	2,105	54,470,111	1,709,084	1,912,701	11,041,422
Businesses—Clubs	572	185,929	824,140	40,065	106,656	411,838
Banks and Loan Societies	52	6,046	†116,614,572	61,879	8,845	5,761,855
Other Businesses	77	15,913	504,894	26,794	106,017	‡379,744
Total Businesses.....	701	207,888	117,943,606	128,738	221,518	6,553,437
Land Societies	235	26,008	386,285	51,161	16,019	4,828,353
General Co-operative Development Societies.....	15	5,362	70,879	13,170	16,482	456,650
Grand Total, 1915	3,825	3,736,589	293,412,279	17,369,997	10,040,964	75,242,354
" 1914	3,689	*3,480,756	240,563,840	15,473,140	9,057,583	68,713,281
" 1913	3,636	3,303,425	223,380,931	14,509,697	8,529,792	64,275,229
" 1912	3,562	3,144,033	209,507,533	13,246,387	7,381,826	58,001,787

* Includes 10,602 societies. † Includes receipts on deposit and current accounts. ‡ Profit for disposal represents the aggregate surplus resulting from the year's working after deductions have been made in respect of societies whose returns disclosed a balance of loss.

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PRODUCTIVE CO-OPERATION.

The total value of productions for Great Britain for each of the main groups carrying on productive operations are given as follows:—

	£		Increase on Previous Year.
Distributive Societies	17,750,000	...	24 per cent.
Wholesale Societies	15,750,000	...	39 "
Productive Societies	5,000,000	...	20 "
Total	£38,500,000	...	29 "

It will thus be seen that the Wholesales and distributive societies combined produced about 87 per cent. of the total.

The details of the productions of the three classes of societies are set forth in the following table:—

Nature of Productions.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	£	£	£	£
Milling.....	8,686,000	1,719,000	—	10,405,000
Baking and Confectionery	6,359,000	3,015,500	14,500	9,389,000
Butchering	4,664,000	1,300,500	127,500	6,092,000
Clothing	2,262,000	696,000	8,000	2,966,000
Bootmaking	1,886,500	377,500	—	2,264,000
Soaps, Candles, &c.	1,162,000	167,000	—	1,329,000
Tobacco	769,500	275,500	—	1,045,000
Preserves.....	568,000	343,000	—	911,000
Textile	579,500	104,500	—	684,000
Boot Repairing.....	421,500	131,500	4,000	557,000
Printing and Bookbinding	430,000	90,500	500	521,000
Building and Construction	310,500	25,500	—	336,000
Lard Refining	317,000	—	—	317,000
Cabinet-making & Upholstering.	156,000	103,000	—	259,000
Farming	148,000	21,000	—	169,000
Metal Working	138,500	2,500	—	141,000
Miscellaneous	561,000	388,500	3,500	953,000
Total.....	29,419,000	8,761,000	158,000	38,338,000

The aggregate of employes totalled 11,496, and the total (directly and indirectly productive) salaries and wages paid exceeded £751,000.



War Effects.—The Forestry Sub-Committee, whose report has just been issued by the Ministry of Reconstruction, says that during 1915 and 1916 alone we paid £37,000,000 more than its pre-war value for the timber we imported. Such a sum would cover several times over any possible loss which could be incurred on a well-conducted afforestation scheme. The Reconstruction Committee recommended to afforest 1,700,000 acres; total cost for the first forty years would be about £15,000,000, after which the scheme would be self-supporting.

CO-OPERATION IN AGRICULTURE.

THE following particulars for 1915, the latest supplied by the Ministry of Labour, relating to registered co-operative societies in the United Kingdom are based upon returns made direct to the Department, supplemented by information supplied by the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies.

DISTRIBUTION AND PRODUCTION.—Returns obtained by the Department for the year 1915 showed that there were at work at the end of the year in the United Kingdom 994 registered co-operative societies engaged in agricultural distribution and production. Of these societies 911 were engaged wholly in agricultural operations, 522 being engaged in the distribution of seeds, manures, implements, &c., and 389 mainly in the production of butter.

The 911 societies had an aggregate membership of 122,072, an increase of 5,028, or 4·3 per cent., on that of the previous year, and of 54,541, or 80·8 per cent., on that of 1905. The total share, loan, and reserve capital amounted to £1,263,577, an increase of £108,184, or 9·4 per cent., on the amount in 1914, and of £848,088, or 204·1 per cent., on that of 1905. The aggregate sales, which amounted to £9,001,867 during the year, were £2,151,922, or 31·4 per cent., in excess of those of 1914, and £6,997,140, or 349 per cent., more than in 1905, while the profit was £169,610, or £67,573 more than in 1914.

The number of persons employed by these societies was 3,532, and the amount paid in wages to them £195,101, the increases over the previous year being 119 and £16,296 respectively.

In addition to the 911 societies mentioned above, there were 83 industrial co-operative societies having farming and dairying departments in 1915; 832 persons were employed in these departments, to whom £49,656 was paid in wages, while the sales amounted to £432,549.

The following table shows for England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, the sales in 1915 of all the 994 distributive and productive societies and departments:—

	Agricultural Distributive Societies.	Agricultural Productive Societies and Departments.	Total.	
			Amount.	Per- centage.
	£	£	£	
England and Wales	3,005,849	617,497	3,623,346	38·4
Scotland	521,208	371,083	892,291	9·5
Ireland	969,521	3,949,258	4,918,779	52·1
United Kingdom.....	4,496,578	4,937,838	9,434,416	100·0

The sales by the distributive societies in England and Wales were more than twice the amount of the combined sales in Scotland and Ireland, but in the productive societies and departments the sales in Ireland were over four times those in England and Wales and in Scotland.

PROFIT SHARING.—The returns made to the Department show that of the 522 agricultural distributive societies 57, employing 263 persons and paying £20,805 in wages, paid bonuses to their employes amounting to £2,230, equal to 10·7 per cent. of the wages of the participants. Of the 389 agricultural productive societies 67, employing 488 persons and paying £23,972 in wages, paid bonuses to their employes amounting to a total of £1,515, or 6·3 per cent. of the wages of the participants.

Of the 83 departments of industrial societies 9, employing 43 persons and paying wages amounting to £3,040, paid bonuses to their employes amounting to a total of £91, or 3 per cent. of wages.

DIARY OF CO-OPERATIVE EVENTS.

1916.

- DECEMBER 7TH.—First Joint National Conference of the Co-operative and Trade Union Movements (held at the Central Hall, Westminster).—The conference calls on the Government to adopt a thorough-going policy with regard to the food problem—a policy which should include the commandeering of or controlling of home products, the commandeering of ships and controlling of freights, the distribution of supplies at prices guaranteeing the full benefit of Government action to the consumer, and the organisation and supervision of production so as to use home resources to the utmost.
- DECEMBER 16TH.—At the C.W.S. Quarterly Meeting a strong protest is made against the action of the Government in not including a representative of co-operation on the recently appointed Wheat Commission.

1917.

- JANUARY 1ST.—A joint co-operative and trade union deputation interviews the Minister of Food (Lord Devonport) with regard to the supply and distribution of sugar.
- JANUARY 7TH.—The A.U.C.E. (as represented by a special delegate meeting at Leeds) decides to open its ranks to commercial and allied workers.
- JANUARY 15TH.—Press announcement of a forward policy on the part of the Co-operative Union, and the decision to institute legal, auditing, publications, and propaganda departments, a statistical and information bureau, and a labour adviser.
- JANUARY 15TH.—Purchase of over 10,000 acres of land in Saskatchewan, Canada, by the English and Scottish Wholesales, announced in the press.
- JANUARY 20TH.—Co-operative Conferences at Bristol, Leeds, London, and Edinburgh (convened by the Co-operative Union) call on the Government to adopt measures at once to increase the supply of foodstuffs by increasing production at home and purchasing supplies abroad, to commandeer the requisite shipping for transport, to control and regulate the distribution of the necessaries of life through approved channels, and to grant co-operative representation on all committees that might be set up to deal with the distribution of foodstuffs.
- JANUARY 26TH.—The Joint Parliamentary Committee interviews the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and makes strong representations with regard to the unfair incidence of the excess profits duty as levied on co-operative societies. Mr. Bonar Law, however, refuses to admit any hardship or to hold out any hope.
- JANUARY 27TH.—Press announcements of the contribution of a first instalment of £2,000,000 to the War Loan by the C.W.S.—£650,000 being new money. Total C.W.S. holdings in Government securities over £4,000,000.
- FEBRUARY 10TH.—C.W.S. purchase announced of the Shilbottle Colliery, Northumberland, at a cost of £50,000.
- FEBRUARY 13TH.—Announcement of the first election to a city councillorship of a member of the Women's Guild (Mrs. Cottrell, of the Ten Acres Management Committee, returned unopposed to the Birmingham City Council).
- FEBRUARY 24TH.—C.W.S. purchase announced of a vinegar factory at Clayton, near Manchester.

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- MARCH 7TH.—At all the C.W.S. Divisional Meetings the inadequate distribution of sugar and the injustice of the excess profits tax imposed on the movement are denounced in strong terms.
- MARCH 20TH.—Death of Mr. Peter Glasse, director of the Scottish Wholesale Society.
- MARCH 31ST.—Press announcement of the purchase by the S.C.W.S. of the Taybank Jute Works, Dundee, containing 2,600 spindles and 142 looms and employing in normal times 300 persons.
- MARCH 31ST.—Announcement of the appointment of a co-operative representative (Mr. H. J. May) on the Committee set up by the Food Controller to consider the system in operation of distributing sugar.
- APRIL 13TH.—Centenary of the birth of George Jacob Holyoake.
- APRIL 14TH.—Commemoration in Birmingham of the Holyoake Centenary and the unveiling of a tablet in the new Central Hall.
- APRIL 19TH.—The Directors of the York Equitable Society voice the feelings of the movement by passing a resolution calling “upon Parliament immediately to demand the resignation of the Food Controller (Lord Devonport), who by his weakness in repeatedly giving way to the demands of the profiteers for higher prices has completely failed to safeguard the interests of the people.”
- APRIL 28TH.—The Annual Scottish Co-operative Conference, at Falkirk, records its protest against the incidence of the excess profits tax, and expresses its approval of the principle of direct co-operative representation in Parliament.
- APRIL 29TH.—Death of Mr. E. Grindrod, a director of the C.W.S. for 28 years.
- MAY 2ND.—The Parliamentary Committee of the Co-operative Congress declares by resolution that it “views with grave concern the serious food crisis with which the country is threatened,” and strenuously urges the following measures as of paramount importance, viz.: the State purchase of all imported foodstuffs, the control of all essential food products, the immediate regulation of food prices, both wholesale and retail, and the lowering of the maximum price of bread. The Committee also strongly protests against the continuous delay in abolishing the inequalities in the sugar supply.
- MAY 21ST.—Press announcement that the Manager of the C.W.S. Dunston Flour Mills (Mr. T. Parkinson) is appointed a member of the Flour Mills Control Committee by Lord Devonport.
- MAY 28TH.—The Co-operative Congress assembles in the Albert Hall, Swansea, under the presidency of Mr. E. R. Wood. For resolutions see page 87.
- JUNE 9TH.—At the C.W.S. Divisional Meetings the harassments endured by the Wholesale at the hands of the Government are revealed by the grave complaints regarding the quality of flour and difficulty of obtaining soap; afflictions due in the one case to the Government regulations and in the other to the lack of transport facilities.
- JUNE 9TH.—The appointment of a Labour Adviser (Mr. J. Pollitt, of Eccles) by the Co-operative Union is announced.
- JUNE 18TH.—The establishment of the Russo-British Co-operative Information Bureau announced in the press.
- JUNE 19TH.—The Women's Guild Congress opens at Torquay. For resolutions see page 89.
- JUNE 19TH.—Important series of financial conferences arranged by the C.W.S. Banking Department begun.

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JUNE 25TH.—Lord Rhondda is interviewed by the representatives of the Joint Tea Committee of the C.W.S. and S.C.W.S. (Messrs. Killon, Allen, and Johns), who put forward State purchase and distribution as an alternative to the unsatisfactory scheme formulated by the Food Controller's Advisory Committee.

JULY 5TH.—The scandal of the excess profits tax on Co-operative Societies is exposed in the House of Commons. On the consideration of the Finance Bill in Committee, Mr. W. Thorne (Labour Member for South West Ham), moves the addition of a new clause repealing paragraph 10 of the Fourth Schedule of the Finance (No. 2) Act, 1915, and adding Societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Acts to the exceptions specified in Section 39 of the Act in question. Mr. F. W. Goldstone (Labour Member for Sunderland) and Mr. W. Clough (Liberal Member for Skipton) also champion the Co-operative case. The Chancellor of the Exchequer (Mr. Bonar Law) revealing the hollowness of the Government's case by declaring in effect that as co-operators were saving more than before by purchasing through co-operative societies it proved that the latter were making more profits. Mr. Mc.Kenna defended the impost, but admitted that the Act had worked unfairly, and suggested that the Chancellor of the Exchequer ought to reconsider the matter. Mr. G. J. Wardle (Labour M.P. for Stockport) and Mr. J. H. Thomas (Labour M.P. for Derby) made a similar appeal, whereon the Chancellor of the Exchequer promised to reconsider the matter.

JULY 27TH.—A deputation from the Co-operative Association of Practical Bakery Managers confers with the Food Controller's lieutenant (Mr. J. R. Clynes, M.P.) in Manchester, and make a series of valuable suggestions for stopping wastages and effecting improvements.

JULY 29TH.—Monster demonstration in Hyde Park against profiteering organised by the London Food Vigilance Committee, comprising the London Joint Committees of Co-operative Societies, the London Trades Council, and the London Labour Party.

AUGUST 22ND.—Joint Tea Committee of C.W.S. and S.C.W.S. appointed Mr. J. E. Johns (director) as their representative on Tea Advisory Committee of Food Ministry. Mr. Johns had been in touch with the Government Committee some time before.

SEPTEMBER 8TH.—Divisional Conferences of the C.W.S. approve of the action of the Committee in purchasing a whole series of landed properties, comprising two estates and seven freehold plots of land, &c., in England, and a plot of land at Lagos, West Africa, as well as other purchases made conjointly with the Scottish Wholesale, to wit, three estates in Southern India, a plot of land at Colombo, Ceylon, and another at Accra, West Africa.

SEPTEMBER 8TH.—At the meeting of the S.C.W.S., in Edinburgh, the outline of a joint agreement between the English and Scottish Wholesales (with reference to the working of interests in Canada, the United States, and West Africa) is submitted for approval, but after discussion a motion to delay the matter is carried by 440 votes to 235.

SEPTEMBER 15TH.—General Meeting of the C.W.S. The Government again receives an emphatic warning that the Wholesale will have no alternative but to take strong action if private traders continue to be allowed to play fast and loose with the regulations.

OCTOBER 17-18TH.—Special National Co-operative Emergency Conference in the Central Hall, Westminster (under the chairmanship of Mr. T. W. Allen), constituting the first great political demonstration in the annals of the co-operative movement. See pages 75-78 for resolutions.

OCTOBER 31ST.—The Prime Minister receives a deputation from the Parliamentary Committee of the Co-operative Congress, and expresses admiration for the movement, but fails to satisfy the deputation in regard to the excess profits tax.

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- NOVEMBER 15TH.—Press announcement regarding C.W.S. enterprise comprising the acquisition of productive works at Diggle, Crewe, &c.
- NOVEMBER 24TH.—The United Board confirms its previous decision to withdraw its representative from the War Emergency Workers' Committee.
- DECEMBER 5TH.—The Central Parliamentary Representation Committee holds its first meeting in Manchester.
- DECEMBER 8TH.—At the C.W.S. Divisional Meetings (where the food question is again to the fore) a resolution (accepted by the Board) is adopted for the grant of £1,000 to the Parliamentary Representation Fund by the C.W.S.
- DECEMBER 8TH.—At the Scottish Wholesale Meeting the controversy concerning the terms of the joint agreement with regard to the overseas ventures is brought to a close.
- DECEMBER 31ST.—Wilmington Flour Mills, Hull, taken over by the C.W.S.



DIARY OF LABOUR EVENTS.

1916.

- DECEMBER 1ST.—Board of Trade's grant of 15 per cent. increase to South Wales miners begins.
- DECEMBER 7TH.—The Parliamentary Labour Party sanctions the acceptance of office by Labour M.P.'s under the new Ministry of Mr. Lloyd George.

1917.

- JANUARY 23RD.—Labour Party Conference in Manchester opens. By a card vote of 1,849,000 to 307,000 the conference approves of the representation of Labour in the Lloyd George Ministry.
- JANUARY 31ST.—Deputation from the executives of the Miners', Railwaymen's, and Transport Workers' Unions interviews the Prime Minister and protests against any introduction of coloured labour into this country to take the place of men called up on military service. The Prime Minister assures the deputation that there is no present intention to do any such thing.
- FEBRUARY 7TH.—Industrial Service Scheme expounded by the Director-General (Mr. Neville Chamberlain), the chief feature of which is a minimum wage of 25s. per week for National Service volunteers.
- MARCH 6TH.—Mr. Barnes (Pensions Minister) expounds the new Pensions Scheme, and agrees to increase the payment to men discharged from the army as unfit to £150 in lieu of £100.
- MARCH 21ST.—Barrow engineers come out on strike.
- MARCH 24TH.—Tyneside engineers' week's strike comes to an end; 40,000 men return to work on condition of an immediate consideration of their claims.
- MARCH 28TH.—Labour troubles at Sheffield discussed in the House of Commons.
- APRIL 2ND.—Ultimatum to Barrow strikers.
- APRIL 3RD.—Barrow strike ends. Men decide to resume work by a vote of 1,623 to 1,250.
- APRIL 12TH.—Government grants increased war bonus to railwaymen: 5s. to males over 18, 2s. 6d. to females over 18, and 1s. 3d. to females under that age.
- MAY 2ND.—Engineers strike work in Manchester and South Lancashire. Over 50,000 down tools in opposition to the Dilution of Labour Bill.
- MAY 14TH.—Engineers begin to resume work as the outcome of a joint conference of Unions subsequently to the issue of a Government proclamation.
- MAY 14-17TH.—The House of Commons discusses the Lancashire engineers' strike.

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- MAY 18TH.—Seven of the strike leaders are arrested and charged at Bow Street Police Court, London.
- MAY 19TH.—Lancashire engineers' strike settled. Arrested leaders released.
- MAY 25TH.—The Prime Minister announces the decision of the Government to appoint a Commission to inquire into the cause of labour unrest.
- JULY 15TH.—Announcement of the Government's consent to grant old age pensioners an extra half-crown.
- JULY 17TH.—Committee on Production pronounces for 3s. advance for engineers and shipbuilders.
- JULY 23RD.—The Minister of Agriculture refuses to accept the principle of a living wage for the agricultural labourer, whereon the House of Commons by 301 votes to 102 rejects a Labour amendment to the Corn Production Bill to fix the minimum weekly wage for able-bodied farm labourers at 30s. instead of 25s.
- JULY 23RD.—Annual Congress of the National Union of Railwaymen demands a State Medical Service.
- JULY 25TH.—Miners' Federation Conference at Glasgow instructs executive to formulate an immediate demand for a general increase of 25 per cent. on present wage rates to meet the cost of living. Congress further demands the nationalisation of mines, calls on local authorities to carry out suitable housing schemes, demands better pensions for soldiers and sailors, and supports the principle of mothers' pensions now in operation in thirty of the United States.
- JULY 27TH.—New Ministries Bill, to establish a Minister of Reconstruction to promote the work of organisation and development after the termination of the war. Bill passes second reading by 92 votes to 30.
- JULY 31ST.—Annual Conference of United Textile Factory Workers' Association opens at Blackpool. Conference discusses the question of food prices, and votes for the issue of an invitation to Lancashire Labour M.P.'s to meet the legislative council with a view to bringing the food problem before the House of Commons. Conference also passes a resolution declaring that all labour in the cotton manufacture should cease work for the week at 5-30 p.m. on Fridays. Conference also demands the conscription of wealth to defray the cost of the war, calls for soldiers' pay to be raised from 1s. to 3s. per day, and for a substantial increase to dependents. The conference also supports the Labour party resolution declaring for the sending of Labour representatives to the Stockholm conference.
- AUGUST 10TH.—The Minister of Education outlines his scheme, which includes the abolition of the half-time system, the continuance of school life to the age of fourteen, and the attendance of young persons at continuation schools at least eight hours a week for forty weeks in the year.
- AUGUST 10TH.—Labour Conference in London supports by a card vote of 1,846,000 to 550,000 the executive's recommendation that Labour representatives should attend the Stockholm conference on condition that the conference be consultative and not mandatory.
- AUGUST 13TH.—The Right Honourable Arthur Henderson resigns from the Cabinet.
- AUGUST 13TH.—Mr. George Barnes is appointed to the War Cabinet to fill Mr. Henderson's place. Mr. Hodge then takes over the Ministry of Pensions, and Mr. G. H. Roberts the Ministry of Labour.
- AUGUST 15TH.—Ministerial declaration that labour dilution is not to be extended to private work.

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- AUGUST 15TH.—Mersey boilermakers, by 1,731 votes to 89, resolve to strike work until such time as the Government shall give a re-hearing with regard to the April award, whereon the Government prohibits the stoppage and makes it illegal for the boilermakers to use their funds for strike pay.
- AUGUST 17TH.—Threatened strike of engine drivers. Conference of Associated Locomotive Engineers decides to enforce the demand for an eight-hours' day by suspension of work.
- AUGUST 21ST.—Railway tension ends. The President of the Board of Trade (Sir A. H. Stanley) gives a pledge that the Government will continue the control of the railways for a time after the cessation of war, so that there will be an opportunity within a month to bring forward a request for a shorter working day—a request to which the Government is pledged to give immediate and sympathetic consideration.
- AUGUST 21ST.—Judge Parry, the chairman of the Pensions Appeal Tribunal, declares that the pensions with which they had to deal were matters of favour and not of legal right.
- AUGUST 21ST.—At the renewed Labour Party Conference in London the vote on the question of sending delegates to Stockholm results as follows: For Stockholm, 1,234,000; against, 1,231,000. Majority for Stockholm, 3,000.
- AUGUST 24TH.—First New Imperial Honours List includes the names of a number of Labour men, some as Companions of Honour, and others as recipients of the Order of the British Empire.
- SEPTEMBER 4TH.—At the Trades Union Congress at Blackpool the Stockholm conference question comes again to the fore. The congress ratifies preceding Labour decisions by 2,849,000 votes to 91,000.
- SEPTEMBER 24TH.—Scottish Miners' Conference at Glasgow refuses the Coal Controller's offer of an advance of 1s. 3d. per day, and declares that 1s. 8d. increase is the least that can be accepted.
- OCTOBER 15TH.—The Leaving Certificate System (set up by the Munitions of War Act, 1916) comes to an end.
- NOVEMBER 20TH—21ST.—Railwaymen's National Conference at Leicester formulates an after-war policy and programme for railwaymen, the chief points being joint representation on railway management bodies, a 48-hour week, an advance of wages to the extent of 10s. per week on the pre-war purchasing power in addition to the conversion of advances gained during the war into permanent wages, overtime to be paid at double rates, and a fourteen days' holiday per annum with pay to be claimed.
- NOVEMBER 22ND.—Government Order made withdrawing certificates of exemption from men who entered the coal-mining industry after August 4th, 1914. The Order supplements the Order made on May 12th, 1917.
- NOVEMBER 28TH.—Announcement made in the House of Commons with regard to the 12½ per cent. advance in wages to all time workers on engineering work or munitions and in the shipyards, the advance covering in the aggregate 900,000 men at an ultimate cost of £14,000,000.
- DECEMBER 1ST.—The Coventry strike, with regard to the status of shop stewards, is settled in London by an arrangement between Government and trade union representatives.
- DECEMBER 1ST.—Threatened strike of engineers in the Birmingham and Midland district with regard to the shop steward question.
- DECEMBER 6TH.—Settlement of the wages dispute in the Lancashire cotton industry on the basis of a 15 per cent. advance on the standard piece price list. The arrangement to continue in force from December 15th, 1917, to June 10th, 1918.
- DECEMBER 27—28TH.—National Conference of Labour and Trade Union Organisations.

C.W.S. PURE YEAST

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To Members

WORLD-WIDE INCREASE IN FOOD PRICES.

FROM the particulars which follow it will be seen that the advance in the prices of the necessaries of life since the outbreak of war has been a world-wide phenomenon, and that as regards the cost of living the effects of the war have literally and truly been felt to the ends of the earth. If the advance in the belligerent countries (and in the Central Empires above all) has been more clearly marked than elsewhere, it is no less true that in the neutral countries adjacent the masses of the population have found themselves in a position the reverse of enviable; while in the illimitable areas overseas, in the countries prolific of foodstuffs, there is not a solitary worker but experiences the wage-reducing power of the higher cost of food. Even the lowest-caste Hindoo in the purlieus of Calcutta is condemned to a still more meagre fare as a result of the outbreak of Hohenzollern insanity in 1914.

Taking the belligerent countries to begin with, we commence with the Allies and with the United Kingdom first of all. On pages 10-13 will be found figures of prices in the United Kingdom, so that we need only show here the

PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM FROM JULY, 1914, TO DECEMBER 1ST, 1917.

	Per cent.
Large Towns (population over 50,000).....	109
Small Towns and Villages	101
In the United Kingdom as a whole	105

Next, as regards France, which had to bear the onslaught of Germany from the very outset, but has had the advantage, as compared with England, of a relatively larger population on the land. But, all the same, after two years of war the industrial worker found that the advance in the cost of maintaining his family exceeded the advance in his earnings by over 20 per cent.; and after three years of war has found himself confronted with an advance in food prices to the following extent:—

	Per cent.
In Towns of over 10,000 inhabitants (1st quarter of 1917)..	83
In Paris (July, 1917)	83

Concerning Italy, it may be stated that the increase of food prices which took place before she joined the belligerents was comparatively small compared with the increase during the two years in which Italy has been at war, and has had to withdraw agriculturists from their avocations. How retail prices have advanced year by year is shown by official statistics with regard to 42 towns:—

	Per cent.
In July, 1915, the increase amounted to	13½
„ 1916, „ „	24½
„ 1917, „ „	71½

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In European Russia, in 1916 alone, commodities of domestic consumption rose in price from 75 to 80 per cent. From June, 1915, to March, 1917, the increase was as follows: Wheat flour, 92 per cent.; rye flour, 89; sugar, 59; and salt, 92; whilst the rise in beef prices exceeded 110 per cent. From December, 1915, to March, 1917, Russian butter increased in price by 194 per cent.; cream butter, 170; milk, 129; eggs, 113; and soap, 135 per cent.

With regard to the Central Empires, the official statistics of the advance of food prices in the respective capitals furnish a clear indication of the position of affairs.

INCREASE IN RETAIL PRICES.

	July, 1915. Per cent.	July, 1916. Per cent.	July, 1917. Per cent.
Vienna	78½	—	173
Berlin.....	69½	117½	—

Turning next to the neutral countries in Europe, we may begin by comparing the increase in the household budgets of people of small incomes in Scandinavia, *i.e.*, the budgets which in Denmark and Sweden in pre-war days figured at 2,000 kroner, or about £111 per year, and in Norway at 1,500 kroner, or a little over £80.

	Per cent.
In Denmark (in February, 1917).....	46
In Sweden (in June, 1917).....	75
In Norway (in August, 1917).....	110

As for Iceland (a Danish possession), local statistics show that the cost of food in Reykjavik (the Icelandic capital) was in July, 1917, 152 per cent. higher than in July, 1914.

Coming now to Holland, the rise in the cost of living is illustrated by the increase in the expenditure of two rural working-class families, one of ten and another of six persons, and, assuming the standard of living to have undergone no change, the increase in the cost as between July, 1914, and July, 1917, works out as follows:—

	Per cent.
For a Family of 10 Persons	108
" " 6 " 	112

Taking food alone the increase in the first case amounts to 107 per cent., and in the second case to 116 per cent.

With regard to Switzerland, the statistics of the Swiss Co-operative Union furnish us with eloquent data to go by. As between June, 1914, and September, 1917, the general level of prices of articles of domestic consumption have advanced 92 per cent. In other words, the increased cost of maintaining a typical co-operative family (averaging five persons) is indicated as follows:—

	Francs.		£	s.	d.
In June, 1914, the cost was	1043·63	=	41	14	10
In September, 1917, the cost was	2004·14	=	80	3	4

That is, for the same quantity and quality of commodities bought at the store.

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Across the Atlantic the rise has been less afflicting than in the neutral countries of Europe, but that it has been of a disagreeable extent the figures conclusively show. Take Canada first. The weekly expenditure for a family of five persons according to the level of prices of commodities in 60 Canadian towns: In September, 1917, the increase as compared with July, 1914, is thus indicated:—

	Per cent.
The increase in the cost of Food amounted to.....	57
The total Weekly Expenditure increased by	31

In the United States, also, official figures are no less indicative of the universal trend, inasmuch as the general level of retail prices of food showed an advance of 46 per cent. as between July, 1914, and August, 1917.

Next, to the Antipodes, where the inhabitants, despite their remoteness, have not by any means escaped the operating factor, as may be seen from the following figures:—

	Per cent.
Australia (July, 1914–June, 1917), advance	26·3
New Zealand (July, 1914–August, 1917), advance	27·4

In the case of the Australian Commonwealth the increase is based on the average retail prices of food in 30 principal towns. In the case of New Zealand the increase is based on the level of prices of groceries, dairy produce, and meat.

As for India, it is sufficient to state that in Calcutta, in the course of three years, salt has advanced in price 50 per cent; dairy products 35, sugar 87, tea 19, wheat flour 17, cereals 10, fruits and vegetables 12, and rice 4 per cent.



INCREASE OF FUNDS AND MEMBERSHIP OF A.U.C.E.

The following shows the increase of funds and membership since the benefit scales were introduced in 1895:—

Year ending June 30th.	Total Income.	Expenditure.			Added to Reserve Funds.	Central Funds at end of Year.	Membership at end of Year.
		Branch Management.	Central & District Management.	Benefit Payments.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
1896.....	559	—	182	135	242	340	2,179
1901.....	4,659	631	768	1,578	1,682	5,912	7,338
1906.....	12,143	1,748	1,571	5,314	3,510	20,126	13,203
1911.....	29,946	4,369	5,101	13,797	6,679	46,151	30,620
*1916.....	43,814	6,511	11,772	24,558	973	74,461†	60,253

* Year ended December 31st.

† In addition to this amount, funds totalling £2,549 were in the hands of branches for local purposes.

THE PROFIT-SHARING SYSTEM.

STRICTLY to conform with the term, profit-sharing should signify the grant of a clear unearned bonus from gains. Where the bonus constitutes the measure of extra productivity or special economies on the workers' part, then the bonus, accurately speaking, constitutes earnings. Where the firm derives extra gain through the bonus there is clearly a sharing of earnings, and the term profit-sharing acquires a Gilbertian significance. Profit-sharing of the last-named type may be ranked, along with the "dividend" schemes of private traders, as a purely self-interested business method. It stands in opposition to trades unionism, which aims at a closer approximation of earnings to the value of labour, and in still greater opposition to the co-operative principle, which stands for the democratic control of trade and industry, the equitable distribution of wealth, and the negation of profit.

All this it is necessary to state to make clear the distinction between systems of profit-sharing which are worthy the title and those which have been established, to all intents and purposes, as profit-making systems under the profit-sharing name. The latter rank in the category of exploiting devices in contradistinction to those which signify a social outlook as well as a scientific organisation of industrial affairs.

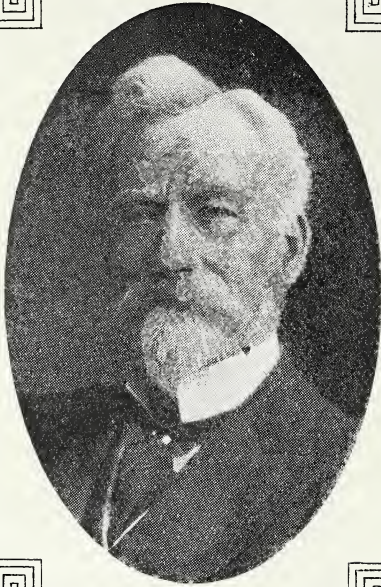
Turning now to the statistical aspect of the profit-sharing system, the figures are apt to strike one by their meagre proportions. Where the co-operative and trade union movements count their adherents by millions, the profit-sharing system firms in the whole United Kingdom employ in round figures 132,000 permanent employés, while the number of those qualified to participate in a bonus constitute less than half that number, or some 63,000 odd all told. During the course of half a century 328 constitutes the sum total of firms which have put the system in practice, and of these 171 firms have discarded the system after trial, leaving 152 firms with the

system in operation in the year the war broke out.

With regard to individual branches of industry, the statistical table shows that profit-sharing in connection with gas works embraces the largest single section of employés (29,173), and stands out conspicuously by reason of its permanence, only one case of abandonment being recorded out of 38 experiments; whereas the next three largest—the engineering and shipbuilding concerns, with 23,000 odd employés; chemical, glass, and pottery firms, employing close on 14,000; and mining and quarrying concerns, with 12,000 and odd employés—show respectively 17 cases of abandonment out of 24 trials, 8 out of 24, and 6 out of 7.

Taking the systems all round, the average bonus works out at the latest period at close on 6 per cent. on wages, the two extremes of bonus insignificant and bonus substantial helping to counterbalance each other. With regard to the methods of payment, those defined as "all in cash" have been most experimented with and account for 65 per cent. of the total, and, despite close on 74 per cent. of discardances, still constitute the distinguishing feature of nearly 56 per cent. of the schemes still in operation; whereas the schemes which make part payment in shares and retain the rest for provident purposes comprise 13 per cent. only; schemes providing for part payment in cash and part payment in shares figure at 11 per cent.; and schemes for part payment in cash and reservation of the rest for provident purposes comprise no more than 7 per cent.

As for the causes of the discardance of profit-sharing schemes, 69½ per cent. of those abandoned are attributable to apathy and dissatisfaction on the part of employés, and dissatisfaction with results on the part of employers, plus the cases in which the schemes have failed to keep firms afloat. Meanwhile, the fact that the workers have concentrated their energies on co-operation and trades unionism simply shows their preference for independent activity.



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WORLD-WIDE CO-OPERATION: THE MOVEMENTS OF MANY LANDS.

In the following pages are articles dealing with the character and progress of co-operation in many countries, first in Europe and then in other parts of the world. European countries are arranged in alphabetical order. For the first time, perhaps, readers are enabled to obtain a bird's-eye view of the world position of co-operation in various forms.

LIST OF COUNTRIES.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY	ROUMANIA (See Balkan States).
BALKAN STATES.	RUSSIA.
BELGIUM.	RUSSIAN POLAND.
BOHEMIA (See Austria-Hungary).	SERBIA (See Balkan States).
BULGARIA (See Balkan States).	SPAIN.
DENMARK.	SWEDEN.
FINLAND.	SWITZERLAND.
FRANCE.	TURKEY (See Balkan States).
GERMANY.	
GREECE.	
HOLLAND.	ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.
HUNGARY (See Austria-Hungary).	AUSTRALIA.
ITALY.	BURMAH.
NORWAY.	INDIA.
POLAND (See Russian Poland).	JAPAN.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Total area, 261,035 square miles, with an approximate (pre-war) population of 53 millions; Austria (including Bosnia-Herzegovina) occupying 140,605 square miles and possessing an approximate (pre-war) population of 31½ millions, and Hungary (including Croatia and Slavonia) covering an area of 125,430 square miles and possessing a population which might be estimated at 21½ millions anterior to the war. The preponderance of the rural population in Austria is shown by the general average of 271 inhabitants per square mile, and to a greater degree in Hungary, where the average density of population figures at 172 per square mile. Of the whole population,

Germans constitute 23½ per cent.; Hungarians, 19½ per cent.; the Slav peoples, 36½ per cent.; and Roumanians and Italians combined, about 8 per cent.

Racial and territorial distinctions being the predominant characteristic of the conglomerate empire, in which over twenty languages are spoken, it is not surprising to find that co-operation, like politics and trades unionism, has embodied itself in racial and territorial movements almost as separate and distinct as those of independent states. Three co-operative movements, at least, have attained a development entitling them to a review in these pages.

AUSTRIA.

IN 1914 co-operation in Austria embraced 19,296 societies of all kinds, the relative forces of the agrarian and distributive movements being denoted by 15,928 societies on the one hand, and 1,433 on the other; the agrarian societies constituting 82 per cent., and the distributive societies about 6½ per cent. of the total. Though the seeds of co-operation were planted in Austria over half a century ago, the tardy growth of the stores movement is attested by the fact that, in 1889, 236 societies constituted the number all told. Thus, the main growth pertains to the last twenty years, whilst the leading distributive organisation dates back only a dozen.

THE CENTRAL UNION.

The Central Union of Austrian Distributive Co-operative Societies, whose foundation in 1904 bore witness to the rise of a new spirit, now comprises about a third of the total number of consumers' societies. Its position before the beginning of the war and after is denoted by the following figures:—

Year.	Societies.	Membership.	Total Trade of Societies.	
			Kronen.	£
1913	463 ...	300,934 ...	97,753,641 ...	3,910,145
1914	508 ...	298,605 ...	94,750,000 ...	3,790,000
1915	476 ...	314,814 ...	101,826,000 ...	4,073,040

The Union in 1915 comprised 360 German societies, 75 Bohemian, 19 Polish, 11 South-Slavonian, nine Italian, and two Roumanian societies. During the year the membership of the productive societies decreased from 2,079 to 1,982, while the turnover increased from six million to eight million kronen—*i.e.*, from £240,000 to £320,000.

The People's Year Book.

THE WHOLESALE.

The Co-operative Wholesale of the Austrian Distributive Societies (Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft österreichischer Konsumvereine) dates from 1905, and in the course of a single decade has found itself confronted with two national crises, the first at the time of the Balkan war, and the second beginning in 1914. How it progressed during the earlier years, and how it has weathered the storms since, may herewith be seen:—

Year.	Total Turnover.	
	Kronen.	£
1913	26,348,429	1,053,937
1914	26,802,153	1,072,000
1915	28,928,296	1,205,345
1916	50,092,772	2,087,199

In 1917 the Wholesale acquired new premises, which are also to include the offices of the Central Union's Bureau.

IN WAR-TIME.

In view of the food crisis in Austria the Central Union drafted a plan for the national organisation of food supplies on the following basis, viz.: The establishment of a Central State Bureau on which co-operators should be represented; the collaboration of the military and civil authorities in the matter of the supply and distribution of food; co-ordinated action on the part of agricultural producers; the national stocktaking of foodstuffs, and an investigation of prices and fixing of the percentage of profits for wholesale and retail dealers. For all large towns special committees to be appointed for the fixation of prices, town authorities to be compelled to adopt energetic measures in the way of securing supplies, and the opening of municipal food stores.

Dr. Karl Renner, first chairman of the Central Union, was made a member of the State Food Control Bureau, and, later on, director of the Bureau's press affairs.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

Loan societies of the Schulze-Delitzsch pattern were the first type of co-operative societies founded in Austria, the fifties of last century being the period of their earliest advent. Later on, societies of the Raiffeisen type were introduced, and at the close of the year 1900 the number of credit societies amounted to 5,098, of which the minority (*i.e.*, 1,513 with 924,000 members) were of the Schulze-Delitzsch type. As will be seen from the total figures of Austrian co-operation for 1914, credit societies, as a whole, still maintain the predominant position.

The People's Year Book.

CO-OPERATIVE STATISTICS.

Loan Banks	12,380
Agricultural Societies	3,548
Distributive Societies	1,433
Craft Societies	1,286
Building Societies	592
Miscellaneous Societies.....	57

19,296

HUNGARY.

Distributive co-operation in Hungary was the last type to be introduced, the precedence of agrarian co-operation being largely accounted for by the preponderance of the agricultural population and their needs. In connection with the stores movement, as with other forms of co-operation, the name of Count Alexander Károlyi, styled the father of Hungarian co-operation, is deservedly honoured.

The main stream of distributive co-operation is represented by the societies united in the "Hangya" Wholesale, while the denominational or "Christian" societies, numbering 470 in 1916, form a section apart. Altogether the two sections in 1916 comprised 1,856 societies, with a total approximate membership of 420,000.

THE "HANGYA" WHOLESALE.

The formation, in 1890, of the Hungarian Co-operative Wholesale, entitled the Hangya (Ant), mainly through Count Károlyi's initiative, provided distributive co-operation with a centre of organisation and development, and ultimately transformed a number (by no means large) of sporadic societies into a movement. Slow as was the Hangya's progress at first (in 1898, for example, 16 societies only were affiliated), the succeeding decades gave evidence of good progress. By 1907 Hungary could count over 1,000, and by 1912 close on 1,600 societies, the majority of which the Hangya could reckon as its members. In other words, during the years of this century the Hangya's affiliated societies increased as follows:—

Year.	Societies.	Membership.	Total Turnover of Societies.	
			Kronen.	£
1900	122	22,500	28,000,000	1,120,000
1912	1,195	182,300	53,400,000	2,136,000
1915	1,307	228,403	77,069,069	3,082,762

In the same period the proportion of supplies obtained through the Hangya increased from 44 to 66 per cent.

The subjoined figures show the Hangya's sales during the war period.

Year.	Total Sales.	
	Kronen.	£
1914	30,218,913	1,259,121
1915	46,064,331	1,919,347
1916	57,573,133	2,398,880

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In 1916 the societies connected with the Hangya numbered 1,386 (with a total membership of 300,000 in round figures), as compared with 1,307 in 1915, 1,270 in 1914, and 1,251 in 1913.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

The leading events in the history of agrarian co-operation in Hungary have been as follows:—The inauguration of credit societies with the foundation of the Beszterce Savings Bank and Aid Society in 1851; the establishment of the (National Co-operative) Land Credit Bank in 1862; the foundation of Raiffeisen Societies in the same year; the opening of the Central Credit Bank in 1894, in which year co-operative dairies were also started; the establishment of the National Central Credit Institute in 1898, under Ministerial auspices and with State aid—this institution also absorbing the Central Credit Bank founded four years previously. The Institute, which is prepared to finance all forms of co-operation, acts also as a central agricultural purchasing society, buys and parcels out large estates, and also carries on supervisory and educational work. In 1911 the institution possessed share capital to the amount of £560,000, besides £440,000 in reserve funds and £2,600,000 in deposits, the loans to societies amounting to over 7½ millions sterling.

Statistics show the position of the movement as a whole in 1914: In this year the Union of Hungarian Co-operative Societies (founded 1908), which constitutes a bond of unity for co-operation of all forms, increased its affiliated societies from 5,615 to 5,835. The Central Union of Co-operative Credit Societies increased from 2,425 to 2,462, the Raiffeisen societies from 232 to 252 and the Serbian societies to 267, and the live stock insurance societies from 817 to 1,009.

BOHEMIA.

Area, 20,223 square miles. Population, 7 millions, three-fifths belonging to the Slavonic race. Average density, 346 to the square mile.

Bohemia is the Austrian territory in which manufactures have undergone most development.

The first experiments in co-operation were made in the sixties, the societies founded being after the style of those belonging to the Schulze-Delitzsch organisation in Germany. But neither the earlier nor the later attempts sufficed to originate a definite movement, for the reason that the energies of the working class were concentrated on the agitation for political reform and on the building up of trade unionism. Thus, co-operation in Bohemia continued in the semi-developed stage down to the present century, when a new departure began with the decision of the Congress of the Czech S.D. Labour Party, in 1907, that the members of the party should devote themselves to the promotion of co-operation, and that the work of co-operative construction on nationalist lines should be commenced

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forthwith, the outcome being the establishment in the same year of the Czech-Slav Central Association of Distributive, Productive, and Economic Co-operative Societies, with headquarters in Prague. (Ustředni českoslovanských družstev-konsumních, výrobních, hospodárských v Praze).

Testimony to the success of the Union is afforded by the following figures:—

Year.	Affiliated Societies.	Membership.	Total Trade of Societies.	
			Kronen.	£
1908	86	14,267	7,180,309	299,180
1913	272	66,496*	23,742,047	989,252

* Membership of 254 Societies reporting.

Of the 272 societies, 175 were distributive; productive, building societies, and so forth, comprising the rest.

PRESS.—Official organ of the Union: *Družstevník* ("The Co-operator"), established 1909. *Průkopník*, the monthly supplement.

THE WHOLESALE.

From its establishment in 1909 (two years after the Union), the Co-operative Wholesale at Prague (Velkonákupni společnosti konsumních družstev v Praze), or V.D.P., has made progress, as the figures indicate:—

Year.	Total Turnover.	
	Kronen.	£
1910.....	1,024,926	40,997
1911.....	1,621,122	64,845
1912.....	2,178,705	87,148
1913.....	3,126,463	125,058
1914.....	3,238,427	129,537

PRODUCTION.—The Wholesale commenced operations in this sphere with the acquisition of a flour mill in 1913.



THE BALKAN STATES.

SERBIA.

Area (before the Balkan war), 18,786 square miles, with a population just short of 3,000,000. As the outcome of the Balkan war the area was increased to 33,685 square miles, and

the population to just over 4½ millions, a figure signifying an average of 127 inhabitants per square mile—an average indicating that land avocations are the main source of subsistence.

THOUGH distributive co-operation in Serbia is a plant of recent growth, 200 consumers' societies, with a membership of 9,500 all told, and an annual turnover of about £60,000, have been recorded for 1913, the year preceding the Austrian invasion. For the same year the position of agrarian co-operation is shown by the record of 850 credit societies, with a membership of 40,000, in addition to 15 dairies and other societies miscellaneous.

ROUMANIA.

Area, 53,500 square miles, or rather less than that of England and Wales. Pre-war population, $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Average density, 140 per square mile. Though predominantly agricultural, Roumania is the leading country in the Balkan Peninsula, so far as industrial developments are concerned. On the other hand, by reason of its semi-feudal system of land tenure, its landed magnates and large estates,

it contrasts unfavourably with Serbia, the land of peasant-proprietors. Speaking a language derived from the Latin, and tracing their descent from an ancient Roman colony, the Roumanians, despite the large admixture of blood acquired in the course of ages, may be said to form an exotic element in the Balkan Peninsula.

AN indication of the position of Roumania in the co-operative scale is afforded by the figures for the end of 1912:—

	Societies.	Membership.
Distributive	231	10,960
Farmers' Co-operative Associations...	495	66,000
Credit Banks.....	2,862	563,270
Dairies	7	360
Miscellaneous	314	17,068
		657,658

The farmers' associations for the co-operative acquisition of land, which have become a special feature of the country, have all practically arisen since the year 1903. The land acquired by this method is stated to have amounted to 370,000 hectares, and the expenditure to about half a million pounds sterling.

BULGARIA.

Area, 43,300 square miles. Estimated population (1914), 4,750,000, or 109 per square mile.

IN co-operation, as in other things, Bulgaria comes far behind both Roumania and Serbia, a circumstance which cannot be wondered at considering that the emancipation of the nation from the direct rule of the Turk took place only in 1878, when, in accordance with the Berlin Treaty, Bulgaria was erected into an autonomous principality. All things considered, it stands to the credit of Bulgaria that in 1912 the country possessed over 900 societies of various kinds, four-fifths of them being agrarian. Thus, while distributive co-operation counted 76 societies, and craft co-operation 31, agrarian co-operation embraced 721 credit societies (mainly of the Raiffeisen type), 12 people's banks, 14 agricultural societies, and 13 dairy societies. In addition to these there were also 18 productive societies of various kinds, and 41 of a miscellaneous character; while a central co-operative bank and five agricultural wholesales denote the beginnings of a further stage of development.

TURKEY.

In Europe the area belonging to Turkey has been reduced to 10,882 square miles, with a population of 1,891,000. With Turkey in Asia, the

total area of the Ottoman Empire before the war was estimated at 710,224 square miles, and the population at 21¼ millions.

IN Constantinople distributive co-operation has been made the subject of more than one experiment: but so far the only successful undertaking recorded is that of a co-operative society organised by the railway staff on their own behalf. Another attempt made in one of the suburbs to combat the private trader by co-operative methods for one reason or another failed to realise expectations.



BELGIUM.

Area, 11,373 square miles, that is to say, nearly twice the size of Yorkshire. Pre-war population, 7½ millions. Average density of population before the German invasion, 660 per square mile, and surpassing that of any other country in Europe. Noted before

Armageddon for its intensive land culture, its extensive industries, and its monuments of mediæval architecture, Belgium has since become transcendently conspicuous by reason of its Vandalic relics and of the tragic fate of its people.‡

IN 1913, the last year of peace, distributive co-operation in Belgium was represented by a total of 531 societies. Of this total those belonging to the Federation of Belgian Co-operative Societies constituted the predominant factor in virtue of their number, their organisation, and their constitutional developments, not the least being the Central Wholesale, the only one of its kind in the country. Hence, after noting the fact that Catholic and Liberal, as well as Neutral societies also play a part in the distributive co-operative life of Belgium, but to a comparatively minor extent,* we pass on to the movement which has played the most conspicuous rôle and which has been the leading factor in Belgian co-operation, whose growth as a whole is indicated by the following figures, which show in what proportion distributive societies have developed during the last 40 years: 1875, 5; 1885, 23; 1895, 190; 1905, 420; 1911, 466; 1913, 531.

*“ In strong contrast with Britain the co-operative movement in Belgium is primarily political in character, and is more important as an educational than as an economic force. The different societies may be classified under four headings—Socialist, Catholic, Liberal, and Neutral, the last-named group being but small. As there is no unity between the different groups, there is a complete lack of statistics dealing with the movement as a whole; but the main facts can be stated. While agricultural co-operation is almost entirely controlled by the Catholics, other political parties having as yet failed to establish any footing in the rural districts, in the towns the Socialists have very largely captured the movement, and their societies are much more important than those of all other parties put together.”—*Land and Labour Lessons from Belgium*, by B. Seebohm Rowntree.

Owing to historic circumstances co-operation in Belgium, both in its main movement and in its minor ones, possesses a distinctive trait, that of non-neutrality. As all the world knows, Belgium is the one country in Europe, or in the world for that matter, where the working-class movement has developed in the form of a triple alliance so close and compact that it may be termed a *tria juncta in uno*, of which the *Maison du Peuple*—the People's House—is everywhere the symbol and seal. Literally speaking, the political, trade union, and co-operative movements have grown just as a family, the latter two being the joint offspring of the Socialist Labour Party, which likewise trained, formed, and organised both. As this specific experiment in co-operation was the last to be made, so it was the first to succeed, as the annals of co-operation in Belgium conclusively show.

At the outset Belgian co-operation began as a "workshop" or artisans' productive co-operative movement, deriving its form from the French societies of the middle of the nineteenth century, and its inspiration from the French Revolution of 1848. The societies of tailors, shoemakers, and printers, however, which were founded in the early fifties, succumbed to the difficulties of acclimatisation, and in a very short time all ceased to exist.

The "workshop" experiment ended, then the stores pioneering began, two successive decades producing twice as many attempts, comprising the first co-operative bakeries, founded at Ghent and Antwerp in 1854, various stores established shortly after in connection with friendly societies, as well as a number started under the auspices of the "International" from 1864 to 1873; but all alike, with the exception of the fortunate few, failing to escape the final catastrophe. The field of enterprise being thus left vacant for new pioneers, the Socialist party, which came into existence in 1879, set to work on the triple lines of politics, industrialism, and trade, and co-operation equipped with Rochdale principles entered on a career as an integral part of a new and strenuous movement. As of old, Ghent became the pacemaker once more—Ghent, with its industrial population working long hours for low wages—where the "Vooruit" in 1880 was founded through the initiative of Edmond van Beveren and Edouard Anseele, and thus gave a lead to all Belgium, in method no less than in enterprise, in view of the sales at current prices and the periodical return to members, of the benefits realised, in proportion to purchases.

Starting with a small bakery on the strength of a fund of 2,000 francs (£80), the "Vooruit" expanded into a "universal provider" in senses beyond the common acceptation of the word. As it provided the local movement with the necessaries of life, so its printing establishment supplied propagandist pabulum of all kinds, together with an organ of co-operation and a democratic paper, *Vooruit*. Furthermore, in establishments like "Ons Huis" (Our House), with its café, bureaux, and assembly-room, and the *Feestlokaal*, with its

café, festival hall, library, and garden, it furnished the centres of social life and democratic activity in all its ramifications. And, in addition to all this, the surplus from its trading operations constituted to a specific extent a financial reservoir from which the political and trade union sides of the movement could derive supplies on occasions of urgency. From this it will be seen that, in the literal sense of the word, the "Vooruit" became the central institution and mainstay of the working-class movement in Ghent, and a special feature of the town in which it exercised a vital influence. And, in addition thereto, the "Vooruit" became the archetype for the movement throughout Belgium. *En passant*, one may note as an illustration of the irony of things the circumstance that the opening of the new and palatial Palais des Fêtes was to have been celebrated in the middle of August, 1914—and in the first week in August the hordes of the modern Genghis Khan were pouring across the Belgian frontier.

Starting in 1882 on a similar modest scale as the "Vooruit," the society at Brussels has developed into one of the features and forces of the city, whilst the Brussels "Maison du Peuple" as the centre of co-operative democratic life and activity in the capital has become known by name in many lands. The commercial scope of the organisation, denoted by some two-score establishments, and the mutual aid and free medical service and dispensary and gratis bread supplies in cases of need, together with half a dozen "Maisons du Peuple," in addition to the central in the Rue Joseph Stephens—all this serves as a slight indication of the position of co-operation in the Belgian capital before the war broke out.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION.

The Union of Belgian Co-operative Societies (La Fédération des Coopératives belges) is the only co-operative organisation possessing a central trading institution, a circumstance sufficiently indicating the position of the Union as the predominant factor in the distributive co-operative sphere. Founded in 1901, at the end of 1909 the Union comprised 174 affiliated societies, with a paid-in capital of 1,942,266 francs (£77,690) and a collective trade of 40,655,358 francs (£1,626,214), and in like manner the Union showed progress down to the outbreak of war.

THE WHOLESALE.

The progress which was being made by the Wholesale in the years anterior to the war, as well as the paralysing blow it received when Belgium was invaded, is eloquently indicated by the figures below; but the situation will be better understood by realising that in the bombardment of Antwerp the Wholesale had to transfer its offices to Brussels, and that at a time when the Wholesale could not get in its own debts on account of the chaos, it had to face the demand for cash

payments for everything it bought. Add to this the loss of the greatest part of its trade, and the calamitous position of the Wholesale requires no further words.

Years.	Total Turnover.	
	Francs.	£
1912	9,499,693	379,988
1913	11,550,931	462,037
1914	3,200,000	128,000
1915	2,000,000	80,000
1916	2,000,000 & over.	80,000 & over.

THE WAR AND THE MOVEMENT.

It is noteworthy that the last Belgian Congress, held on July 27th and 28th, 1914, at Seraing, pronounced its protest against the war of Austria on Serbia, and called on the co-operative movements of both countries to do what was co-operatively possible to limit the spread of hostilities. On August 1st the Belgian Co-operative Federation issued instructions to its affiliated societies in regard to the policy to be adopted should the worst come to the worst. Three days later came the German Kaiser's proclamation of invasion, and straightway Belgium found the hellhounds of war at her throat. What the co-operative movement suffered during the first few months of invasion may be seen from the estimate given in the *International Co-operative Bulletin*, and which is here reproduced:—

	Francs.	£
Louvain (theft and fire)	50,000	2,000
Boom, Bruges, Courtrai, Malines, Ostend, Turnhout, Alost-Flemish districts (destruction, bombardments, requisitions).....	9,700	3,800
Charleroi district (requisitions and pillage)	50,000	2,000
Borinage (requisitions and pillage).....	50,000	2,000
Soignies district (requisitions)	100,000	4,000
Thuin district	25,000	1,000
Ath-Tournai district	5,000	200
Liège district: Ayeneux, Engis, Beyne-Heusay, Hermée, Herstal, Queue du Bois, Sprimont (fire, theft, and requisitions)	277,029	11,081
Seilles Co-operative Society (completely destroyed).....	110,000	4,400
Huy district (requisitions)	10,000	400
Namur district (theft, fire, requisitions, and destruction)	150,000	6,000
Dinant (completely destroyed)	100,000	4,000
Luxembourg	65,000	2,600
	<hr/> 1,089,029	<hr/> 43,561

The invaders' requisitioning methods were eminently characteristic, payments being made in waste paper—that is to say, in bills of exchange payable at the close of the war, and in many cases even this formality was dispensed with. Add to all this devastation and highway robbery the reduction of receipts, the urgent calls from members for the refunding of deposits and savings and loans, the difficulties of transport, the commandeering of horses and vans, the difficulty of procuring

supplies, the shortage of capital and working funds, and the demands for cash payments when purchases were made—all this coupled with the rise of prices ranging from 25 to 100 per cent., and the difficulty of paying dividends due, and the harassments which societies were compelled to endure will be faintly realised. The losses in full it is impossible yet to compute.

Under the circumstances it speaks volumes for the public spirit of societies that they maintained pre-war prices as long as they could. As for the public service rendered, the testimony of M. Berryer, the Minister of the Interior, is sufficient in itself, but what took place at Liège serves to emphasise the point. Liège was the first large town to bear the brunt of invasion, and here in this district, where separatism had prevailed hitherto, the societies formed forces and pooled their resources to the last centime, and by their enterprise and public spirit saved multitudes from starvation, not hesitating to give credit where needed and disregarding all risk to themselves.



DENMARK.

Area, 14,124 square miles, or less than half the size of Scotland. Population, close on 3,000,000, the rural inhabitants constituting 60 per cent. Average density, 212 per square mile.

DENMARK presents us with the spectacle of a country which, after being torn in twain by Prussia and reduced to the lowest ebb, rehabilitated herself by concentrating on internal developments, amidst which the factor of co-operative organisation stands out in bold relief—a factor which has helped to raise one of the smallest countries in Europe to the highest celebrity. The landmarks of co-operative history are indicated by a few leading dates. Thus the first co-operative store was opened in 1866, the first dairy in 1882, the first abattoir was established in 1887, the first provincial distributive wholesale in the eighties, the Central in 1896, and the *Andelsudvalget*, or national board of the whole Danish movement, in 1898; while the dairy wholesale organisations were launched in the decade 1894-1904, and the agricultural purchasing wholesales in 1901. Then, coming down to 1914, we find three important enterprises started during the year, viz., the co-operative cement works and the co-operative coal concern to break down capitalist rings, and the co-operative bank as the financial centre of the entire movement.

Thus the stores' movement figures as the leading pioneer of co-operation in Denmark, its record now covering just over half a century. The initiating of the first store—that at Thisted, opened in 1866—was inspired by the example of the Rochdale Pioneers.

THE WHOLESALE UNION.

The period of co-operative resurgence in Denmark was also the period when the organisation of the movement began, no fewer than three wholesales being founded in the course of half a dozen years—Oernes Fællesforening in 1884, Ringkøbing Amts Vareindkøbsforening in 1886, and Den jydsk Fællesforening in 1889. With the amalgamation of the first and third of these organisations in 1896, the Danish Wholesale Society *par excellence* was formed under the title of “Fællesforeningen for Danmarks Brugsforeninger,” or Joint Society for Denmark’s Consumption Societies. Though the Ringkøbing society still exists, it is chiefly as a memorial of earlier days, inasmuch as in 1915 its affiliated societies numbered only 53, with a total membership of 12,000, while its entire turnover did not exceed £218,000 in all. Meanwhile, “Fællesforeningen”—the trading union and central organisation of the distributive movement—has the following statistical record:—

Year.	Affiliated Societies.	Membership.	Total Sales of Wholesale.	
			Kroner.	£
1902	791	105,326	16,915,092	939,727
1912	1,309	184,569	55,496,017	3,083,112
1913	1,359	194,337	61,999,490	3,444,416
1914	1,407	219,492	69,588,824	3,866,046
1915	1,488	232,128	71,458,307	3,969,906
1916	1,537	239,772	84,510,390	4,695,022

In 1915 and 1916 the dividend was raised to 7 per cent. In the latter year the permanent staff numbered 1,408 persons.

THE NATIONAL BOARD AND THE NATIONAL MOVEMENT.

All forces of organised co-operation in Denmark have their centre of unity in the *Andelsudvalget*, or Co-operative Board (established 1898), which may be said to be the elected cabinet of the national movement. Another visible emblem of unity consists in the central co-operative organ, *Andelsbladet*, issued weekly, under the Board’s auspices.

The comparative figures of the collective turnover of the movement of all forces, as represented by the “Udvalget,” are worthy of note:—

	Kroner.	£
1913-14	745,500,000	41,416,000
1914-15	868,600,000	48,255,000
1915-16	1,082,700,000	60,150,000

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At the same time it is interesting to note the turnover of the various sections of the movement for 1915-16, as recorded in *Andelsbladet*:—

	Kroner.	£
Agricultural Purchasing Societies	118,800,000 ...	6,600,000
Co-operative Dairy Societies	375,000,000 ...	20,833,333
„ Slaughteries	253,200,000 ...	14,066,666
„ Egg Exporting Societies	13,700,000 ...	761,111
„ Distributive Societies	125,000,000 ...	6,944,444
„ Insurance Socs. (Premium Income)	4,200,000 ...	233,333
„ Sanatorium Society	200,000 ...	11,111
„ Wholesale Purchase and Sales Societies, including the Distributive Wholesale.....	192,600,000 ...	10,700,000
	1,082,700,000	60,149,998

The total turnover of the miscellaneous societies having no connection with *Andelsudvalget* is estimated at 140 million kroner, or a little over 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ million pounds sterling. By no means the least important of the co-operative organisations unconnected with the *Udvalget* are the credit societies, 13 in number in 1916, with outstanding loans to the amount of over £105,000,000, and the mutual insurance societies with a total annual premium intake of about £1,444,000.



FINLAND.

Area, 144,750 square miles, of which over 16,000 square miles are covered by lakes and rivers. Population, 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ millions. In the south the density of population averages from 40 to 60 per square mile, and in the north from three to 30. The rural population embraces five-sixths of the whole, and agriculture and forestry are the chief industries. Finland is notable as the “land of ten thousand lakes,” and as being the first country in Europe to establish absolute political equality between the sexes, and to admit women into the Legislature on

an equal footing with men. The democratic developments in Finland, serving, as they did, to bring into violent relief the despotism prevailing throughout the rest of the Russian Empire, aroused the resentment of Tsardom to the point of commencing the Russification of Finland, a policy the aim of which was to abolish piecemeal the autonomy which Finland had from old time enjoyed in virtue of its constitutional guarantees. But for the revolutions of 1905 and 1917 Finland might have become, like Poland, a mere geographical term.

THE stores movement in Finland, which in 1916 comprised 486 societies, with a collective membership of 181,752, and a total turnover of £6,505,933 (being an increase of 64 per cent. in membership and of 80 per cent. in sales during the year), has been to all intents and purposes the product of the present century. The oldest Finnish distributive co-operative organisation in existence—the General Consumers’ Society in Helsingfors—made its appearance on the planet only in 1899: the fact that a co-operative society for Helsingfors

was projected in 1860 serving to illustrate the general principle that ideals march far ahead of realities. Moreover, the Helsingfors society of 1899 was no isolated phenomenon. It was the outcome, in common with other events, of a campaign on behalf of the co-operative idea in a decade of democratic resurgence. In other words, the nineties were the era of the social revival in Finland—a revival materialising in the striking political and co-operative developments during the first decade of the present century, a further notable development of recent date being the appointment of leaders of the co-operative movement to the responsible position of State administrators. Thus Senator Väinö Tanner (chairman of the Finnish Wholesale) is now Chief of Finance; Senator W. Wuolijoki (a director of the Wholesale) is chief of another Government department; Senator Leo Ehrnrooth (a member of the board of the Elanto Society at Helsingfors) is chief of the Department of Commerce and Industry; whilst Senator Matti Paasivuori (another member of Elanto's co-operative board, and an ex-director of the Wholesale) is a deputy chief.

How much co-operation in Finland owes to its good genius the Pellervo Society for wise guidance, both in the beginning and in after emergencies, cannot here be told. Suffice it to say that the movement marched onwards till 1908, when there came a set-back lasting for no less than three years; then came the recovery manifesting itself in increasing membership and consolidation down to the war period, during which the figures of membership and turnover have indicated a record increase. Meanwhile the figures may be allowed to speak for themselves:—

Year.	Number of Active Societies.	Total Membership.	Total Sales. £
1901.....	7	1,000	12,000
1913.....	419	91,000	2,520,000
1915.....	431	110,864	3,566,303
1916.....	486	181,752	6,505,933

As between 1915 and 1916 the number of shops increased from 980 to 1,257, while the diminution of the credit system is definitely attested by the fact that 60 per cent. of the purchases in 1916 were paid for in cash, as compared with 31·3 per cent. in 1913.

As the outcome of a divergence of views between the workers' societies in the towns and the peasants' societies in the rural districts a cleavage took place in 1916, and in November of the same year a number of towns' societies formed themselves into a separate union entitled *Kulutusosuuskuntien Keskusliitto* (or Central Union of Consumers' Co-operative Societies), and subsequently established a special organ called *Kuluttajain Lehti* (or "Consumers' Newspaper"). By the end of March, 1917, the new organisation embraced 121 societies, with a collective membership of close on 90,000—*i.e.*, one-fourth of the distributive societies and one-half the distributive membership in all Finland. The cause of the split is due to the fact that the rural

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societies insisted on maintaining the Congress regulation of one society one delegate, whereby the workmen's societies, with their larger membership but less numerous organisations, were placed at a disadvantage when matters came to the vote.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

The Finnish Co-operative Wholesale (Osuuskauppojen Keskuosuuskunta), more tersely Keskunta or S.O.K., which, in other respects, performs also the usual functions of a union, was founded in 1904 with 12 affiliated societies. After a year well spent in propaganda and in coaching societies, and starting a periodical, the S.O.K., in 1905, began its trading career, whose outlines are indicated in the following figures:—

Year.	Number of Societies.	Wholesale's Turnover.	
		Finnish Marks.	£
1905	27	1,004,000	40,160
1913	196	22,968,000	918,720
1914	244	24,285,756	971,440
1915	341	35,098,521	1,403,940
1916	432	72,160,139	2,886,406

CO-OPERATIVE RAMIFICATIONS.

Co-operation in Finland embraces all forms and varieties. Some idea of the ramifications may be gained from the figures for 1914, recording 45 labour co-operative societies, over 400 dairies, a number of which are engaged in corn milling and saw milling as well, 10 registered corn-milling societies, 31 co-operative and sawmills societies, 33 egg-selling societies, cattle-selling and fish-selling societies, 235 registered threshing machine societies, 127 peat moss societies, 58 telephone societies, 56 land-purchasing societies, and 43 housing societies; whilst credit co-operation is also well represented. In various departments co-operation is considerably stronger than the figures show, for the reason that a number of societies exist outside the register. In 1913, 2,300 societies altogether figured on the register, comparative statistics thereof revealing the precedence of distributive co-operation over every other specific section, and showing that its sales amounted to nearly half the entire co-operative turnover in the country.

	Membership.	Turnover. £
Co-operative Stores	91,000	2,520,000
Co-operative Dairies	39,000	1,480,000
Rural Banks.....	20,000	356,000
Other Co-operative Societies.....	46,000	520,000
	<hr/> 196,000	<hr/> 4,876,000
Co-operative Societies for the common purchase of agricultural necessaries		480,000
		<hr/> 5,356,000

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As illustrative of the growth of agrarian co-operation the figures in two special departments are interesting to note.

CO-OPERATIVE DAIRIES.

Year.	Registered Societies.	Membership.	Sale Value of Butter Produced. £
1902.....	28	2,400	140,000
1913.....	418	39,000	1,480,000

The membership and turnover for the later year are those of the 370 societies supplying statistics.

CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Year.	Registered Societies.	Membership.	Turnover. £
1903	24	253	8,000
1913	478	19,892	35,600

The net value of members' total property in 1903 was £76,720, and in 1913 £5,156,920.

INTER-CO-OPERATION.

Co-operation amongst organisations and the establishment of joint undertakings is also a feature which has been developed of late years.



FRANCE.

Area, 204,000 square miles, or more than twice the size of Great Britain. Pre-war population, 40 millions. Average density of population, 196 per square mile. As the first great country in Europe to proclaim the rights of man and the sovereignty of the people, as

the early pioneer and propagandist of the co-operative commonwealth ideal, and as the upholder of the artistic tradition in a utilitarian age, France has been a shining protagonist of civilisation, and one whose services must be considered unique.

THE pre-war position of distributive co-operation in France may be gauged from the statistics given in the *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, which recorded for January 1st, 1914, a total of 3,156 distributive co-operative societies, of which 2,988 furnishing particulars had a collective membership of 876,179, and a total turnover of 315,212,000 francs, or £12,608,480. It may be noted *en passant* that out of the above number of societies 1,212, with 274,000 members, were exclusively devoted to the sale of bread. By the fusion of forces, neutral and socialistic, at the end of 1912, the National Federation of Distributive Co-operative Societies (La Fédération nationale des Co-operatives de Consommation), with Professor Charles Gide as president, became the territorial organisation representing the movement in France.

The French movement, like the English, is one of the historic movements of Europe, each having originated in the earlier part of

last century in an era of political ferment and economic change. As in England, so in France, the first attempts to lay the foundations of an economic democracy by the simple process of the workers starting out to manage their own affairs were inspired by the vision of a new social order, of which Fourier and Saint-Simon were the apostolic preachers in France, as was Robert Owen in our country. Later on, however, political repression (under the Imperialist regime) interrupted development, and when we recall to mind the further fact that the giant industries in France are head and shoulders less than in England, we see that the smaller proportions of the French movement have been definitely conditioned by circumstances apt to be ignored by those who ascribe the difference in dimensions of the English and French movements to a mere difference in psychology.

Meanwhile, it is interesting to note that in both countries the origins of distributive co-operation are closely associated with a specific region—in France with the manufacturing district of the South; in Britain with the manufacturing area of the North. In France, moreover, the first co-operative experiments, both in the productive and distributive spheres, took place within a year of each other, the credit of opening the first store (in 1832) being due to a group of Alsatian workers, just as the merit of initiating the first artisans' productive society in Paris (in 1831) is due to the social reformer and disciple of Saint-Simon, Philippe Joseph Benjamin Buchez. According to the records, the first store was opened at Guebwiller, in Alsace, by the workpeople of a manufacturing firm of the name of Schlumbert. As the undertaking was a novelty, so the procedure partook of originality, the workers clubbing together their voluntary contributions to form a fund wherewith to start operations, each category of workmen contributing in proportion to the scale of earnings—an arrangement which, however, could hardly serve as a general model, for, simple and feasible as it might be for a specific body of workpeople united in spirit and opinion, the case was bound to be otherwise if co-operation was to become practicable for the public at large. The Guebwiller store thus falls into correct perspective as the initiatory undertaking of distributive co-operation in the experimental stage.

Truth to say, distributive co-operation had to await the advent of a later day and generation before it found itself, so to speak, or its bearings. For the time being the promotion of co-operative workshops and handicrafts absorbed the attention of the social reformer, with whom this specific form of co-operation ranked as the Alpha and Omega of social economic development. While distributive co-operation was treated as the Cinderella of the movement, co-operative handicrafts were raised to the rank of State protégés by the Revolution of 1848, and thereafter, on the advent of Napoleon the Third to the throne, were clapped in a strait-waistcoat,

an event which brought the career of the *associations ouvrières de production* to a close for the time being. Under the shade of Imperialism profit-sharing might have its chance, as completely inaugurated by the house of Leclaire in 1853, and as represented by the Godin Familistère at Guise, established in 1859; but co-operation as a movement, rising superior to tutelage and leading strings, was not to be tolerated in any shape or form. Co-operation, therefore, had to await the advent of the Third Republic before it could get rid of its shackles, and march ahead, free and unimpeded. As an example, take Nîmes, where, during the reign of the Third Napoleon, a food society with philanthropic aims was founded in 1859, but which, in 1878, under the Republic, was superseded by a model co-operative society selling at current rates on the ready-money system, and distributing dividends in proportion to purchases, as well as building up a reserve fund for emergencies. By its business methods, which showed how co-operation could attain success, and by its propagandist journal, *L'Emancipation* (founded in 1886), which proclaimed what co-operation ought to achieve, the Nîmes Society became a co-operative force and a pacemaker as well. In the eighties the movement began to assume visible form and shape; the holding of the first Congress in 1885, the founding of the first federation in the same year, the establishment in 1886 of the first regional Wholesale in Paris for the accommodation of the North, and followed later by the opening of regional Wholesales in Lyons and Tours for the South and East—all these occurrences attested the fact that a forward movement had arisen, and that a new spirit was abroad in the land. A list of societies for 1888 shows that co-operation at that period extended east and west from Roubaix to Tours, and north and south from Cherbourg to Lyons and Nîmes; while at the same time the adolescent stage of growth is denoted by the figures of three leading societies, which showed a membership ranging from 1,700 to 3,118, and an annual turnover ranging from 156,000 to 211,000 francs (£6,240 to £8,440).

The eighties, which witnessed the growth of the movement, likewise saw the entrance of a new force in the field—that of socialism—the outcome of which was the foundation of numerous societies of a socialistic type, and ultimately the foundation of a new syndicate of distributive societies, with a central wholesale (the Co-operation de Gros) as well. This movement, much as it might resemble the movement in Belgium, lacked one characteristic—that of success—and for a very good reason. In Belgium the field was clear for a new experiment, but in France the ground was already pre-empted by neutral co-operation. And so, side by side, the two sections continued till experience proved that there was nothing to be gained by separation and everything by unity, and at last came the fusion of forces into a single organisation; and the beginning of 1913 saw the inauguration of a new and wider career for the unified movement

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under the auspices of the National Federation of Co-operative Societies, of which the *Action Coopérative* became the official organ, with A. Daudé-Bancel as editor.

That co-operation in the meantime had not been marking time is shown by the fact that the total number of societies had nearly doubled and the total turnover nearly quadrupled between the year 1903 and the beginning of 1914.

Year.	Total Number of Societies.	Total Turnover. £
1903	1,880	3,405,000
1914 (January 1st)	3,156	12,608,480

The endorsement by the Rheims Congress of a policy of fusion amongst separate societies forms a happy illustration of the national tendency to carry things to their logical conclusion, and, as the circumstances showed, there were reasons enough for it and to spare, the extent to which separatism prevailed being forcibly illustrated by such cases as Bordeaux with its 10 societies, Montceaux-les-Mines with a dozen, Lille with 13, Lyons with 43, and Paris with 51—plus an extra 63 in the suburbs. As Paris had been a monument of separatism, so Paris led the way in abolishing it. In 1914, the amalgamation of societies in the capital became, to all intents and purposes, an accomplished fact by the choosing of the two societies, La Bellevilloise and L'Egalitaire, as foci of concentration, and the pronouncement on May 13th by the members of both societies in favour of the amalgamation of the two. A fortnight afterwards the world-war broke out.

THE FRENCH WHOLESALE.

The Magasin de Gros, which owed its advent in 1906 to the initiative of M. Héliès, and which started with an initial capital of £1,880, succeeded in increasing its turnover from £80,000 to £440,000 between 1907 and 1913, when the amalgamation of the Co-operative de Gros (the central of the socialistic co-operative societies) with the Magasin de Gros took place, progress being further promoted by the financial support rendered by the English Wholesale and the Bank of France. Therewith also the decision was made to reconstruct the financial basis of the French Wholesale, to pay out private shareholders, and to increase the amount of the shares from £1 to £4, to enlarge the share capital from £6,000 to £12,000, and to invite societies to increase their net subscriptions towards shares, and to authorise the Wholesale to borrow up to £400,000.

After the outbreak of war the Wholesale, with its nine establishments, including two boot and shoe establishments at Lille and Amiens respectively, sustained a severe shock. Lens and Chateau Regnault became occupied by the Germans, and what damages the Wholesale's warehouses there received the future will show. In Epinal and Tours the two warehouses had to be given

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up and two others obtained—one in Maisons-Lafitte from the Consumers' Union of the West Suburb of Paris, and another in Nantes from the Federation in Brittany, in addition to which the Breton Federation's manufactory of preserved products in the same town was acquired. As a provider of the French army the Wholesale has also done good work. At the request of the military authorities the Wholesale established an automobile-bazaar service for the supply of commodities to the French army in Toul—a service which has evoked encomiums both in the Chamber of Deputies and in high military quarters. Finally, it is some satisfaction to note that the Wholesale is on the way to retrieve itself from the loss of receipts sustained during the earlier period of war.

Year.	Total Turnover.	
	Francs.	£
1912-13	10,624,392	424,976
1913-14	13,720,489	548,820
1914-15	9,116,498	364,660
1915-16	11,980,086	479,203

At the Congress held at Paris in October, 1917, it was decided by an overwhelming majority that the Wholesale should be directly linked up with the National Federation through the medium of a single administrative board for both organisations. With the ratification of this decision by the general meeting of the Wholesale, and the acceptance of the board provisionally nominated by the Congress, the formal connection of Wholesale and Federation became an accomplished fact.

CO-OPERATIVE CRAFT SOCIETIES.

Workmen's productive societies—the special form in which French co-operation primarily embodied itself—were practically wiped out of existence during the Second Empire, but have experienced a revival since the establishment of the Third Republic, though not to an overwhelming extent, as shown by the record in 1910 of some 500 societies with a total membership of 20,000, and a collective annual turnover of a little over £2,500,000.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

The following approximate figures show the position of agrarian co-operation in its various forms before the outbreak of war:—

Cheese-making Societies	1,200
Co-operative Dairies.....	500
Agricultural Sales Societies.....	2,600
Agricultural Purchase and Sales Societies	6,500
Co-operative Credit Societies.....	4,700

The purchase and sales societies, with a membership of a million in round figures, have grown to this number since 1884, the year in

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which a special enactment favoured their formation. The co-operative credit societies (with a membership of 190,000 by 1913) date back to 1897, when propitious conditions were established by the Legislature.



GERMANY.

Area, 212,000 square miles. Estimated population (1914), 67 $\frac{3}{4}$ millions, or an average of 319 per square mile. Since the Franco-German war the expansion of industry and commerce has assumed a spectacular aspect. In view of the rate of capitalistic

development, and the voluminous increase of the industrial proletariat, co-operation as the organised economic embodiment of the mass movement has acquired by virtue of its growing dimensions a special significance.

AT the close of 1916 the co-operative stores societies of all Germany had a collective membership of 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ millions, and a total turnover of 742 $\frac{1}{2}$ million marks, or 37 million pounds sterling and odd in round figures. How the stores movement in its entirety has fared during war-time may be seen from the tabulated figures derived from the leading organ of the German distributive movement:—

	1914.		1915.		1916.
Number of Societies.....	2,418	...	2,400	...	2,376
Total of Membership	2,400,000	...	2,500,000	...	2,750,000
" Turnover	£34,266,720	...	£33,782,782	...	£38,683,425
" Production	£6,566,400	...	£7,276,807	...	£9,755,625
" Investment of Members..	£2,320,080	...	£2,431,425	...	£2,621,850
" Reserve Funds	£1,779,000	...	£2,015,902	...	£2,196,287
" Savings, &c.	£5,251,320	...	£5,401,587	...	£6,322,667

As regards the figures for 1916, 1,077 societies, with a total membership of 2,052,129, belonged to the Central Union of German Co-operative Societies (Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine); 276 societies, with a total membership of 325,000, belonged to the General Union of German Acquisition and Economic Co-operative Societies based on Self-help (Der Allgemeine Verband der auf Selbsthilfe beruhenden deutschen Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften); and 1,023 societies, with some 393,000 members, remained outside both organisations.

Taking the distributive figures of the Central and General Unions together, we get the following illustration of the position of the organised movement at various dates:—

Year.	Total of Distributive Societies.	Total Reporting.	Total Membership.
1903	927	835	781,367
1913	1,445	1,411	1,790,035
1916	1,353	—	2,377,139

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Taking the distributive figures of the two Unions separately we are enabled to see things in perspective:—

THE CENTRAL UNION.					THE GENERAL UNION.			
Year.	Total of Distributive Societies.	Total Reporting.	Total Membership.		Total of Distributive Societies.	Total Reporting.	Total Membership.	
1903 ...	585 ...	503 ...	480,646		342 ...	332 ...	300,721	
1913 ...	1,155 ...	1,128 ...	1,483,811		290 ...	283 ...	306,224	
1916 ...	1,077 ...	1,068 ...	2,052,139		276 ...	— ...	325,000	

The reduction in the number of societies in combination with increased membership points to the progress of consolidation.

The position of the Central Union during the war period is recorded as follows:—

Societies.	Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of Societies Reporting.	Membership.	Turnover. £	Production. £
Distributive	1914 ...	1,109 ...	1,094 ...	1,717,519 ...	24,649,026 ...	5,319,489
	1915 ...	1,079 ...	1,073 ...	1,849,434 ...	24,678,496 ...	6,003,500
	1916 ...	1,077 ...	1,068 ...	2,052,139 ...	28,866,790 ...	7,279,970

In the three years the property of the distributive societies increased from £1,688,605 to £1,956,552, the reserve funds from £1,254,159 to £1,638,893, and the savings deposits from £4,012,195 to £4,718,128.

In addition to the distributive societies the Central Union's affiliated Labour Productive Societies numbered (in 1916) 31, the returns from 30 showing a total of 9,836 members, a turnover of £624,263, property to the value of £55,665, reserve funds amounting to £60,386, and savings deposits to the amount of £88,756.

The totals for the whole Union (distributive societies and productive labour societies, and including the figures for the Wholesale and printing and publishing concern, which we give separately) are recorded as follows:—

Year.	Turnover. £	Production. £	Property. £	Reserve Funds. £	Savings Deposits. £
1914 ...	33,289,625 ...	6,571,263 ...	2,152,100 ...	1,738,456 ...	5,222,948
1915 ...	33,188,431 ...	7,791,101 ...	2,274,583 ...	2,072,249 ...	5,516,152
1916 ...	36,469,024 ...	9,568,468 ...	2,412,218 ...	2,383,331 ...	7,025,946

In the pre-war year the average purchases per stores member amounted to £14. 7s., and in the two following years respectively to £13. 7s. and £14. 10s.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

The Co-operative Wholesale of German Distributive Societies, (Die Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft deutscher Konsumvereine), which is conducted under the form of a limited liability company, was established in Hamburg in 1894 with 47 societies and a turnover of 2,799 marks (£139). In the year of the formation of the Central Union the Wholesale embraced 247 societies, and had a turnover of 2,156,854

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marks (£1,078,427). In 1916 its connected societies comprised four-fifths of the distributive societies affiliated to the Central Union, whilst its turnover amounted to something less than a seventh of their total trade. Shortly before the war the Wholesale removed to larger premises.

Year.	Number of Societies.	Wholesale's Turnover. £	Wholesale's Production. £
1913	807	7,702,365	553,829
1914	813	7,876,202	523,763
1915	849	7,642,931	951,334
1916	874	6,694,800	1,415,645

CO-OPERATIVE AND TRADE UNION RELATIONS.—(1) A mutual agreement between the Central Union and the trade union movement as regards standard hours and wages is made for a term of years, and the joint tribunal known as the Tarifamt is the appointed body for settling disputes. Strikes with regard to standard wages and so forth are practically unknown in the Central Union. (2) The Volksfürsorge Insurance Society is a joint undertaking, which has proved highly successful and has effected a great reform in the matter of industrial insurance.

A circumstance bearing on the close relations between the leading forces of co-operation and trades unionism in Germany is the treatment of both as Ishmaelites by the powers that be, who regard all strictly democratic movements as guilty of nothing less than *lèse-majesté*. As no workman in State employ may belong to a militant union, except at his peril, so time and time again bands of workmen in State employ have been given the option of renouncing their co-operative membership or being discharged from State service. The cold-shouldering of the distributive co-operative movement by the Prussian State has for many years stood in violent contrast with the policy of favouritism and State support adopted with regard to the agricultural co-operative movement.

The position of the agricultural co-operative movement as a whole during recent years is shown in the following table:—

	1st Jan., 1913.	1st Jan., 1914.	1st Jan., 1915.	1st Jan., 1916.	1st Jan., 1917.
Central Societies	98	98	97	97	97
Savings and Loan Societies	16,927	17,374	17,718	17,781	17,866
Purchase and Sales Societies.....	2,409	2,632	2,781	2,833	2,909
Dairy Societies	3,488	3,537	3,586	3,588	3,390
Miscellaneous	3,654	4,035	4,306	4,353	4,705
	<u>26,576</u>	<u>27,676</u>	<u>28,488</u>	<u>28,652</u>	<u>28,967</u>

GREECE.

Area (before the Balkan war of 1913), 25,000 square miles, with a population of $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions; after the war, 46,326 square miles. Present population, $4\frac{3}{4}$ millions, or an average of 102 per

square mile. Chief imports, manufactured commodities. Chief exports, currants, tobacco, and olive oil—to say nothing of crowned heads.

CO-OPERATION in Greece in all its forms is still in the experimental stage, distributive co-operation most of all, a circumstance indicating that the keen commercial faculties attributed to the nation have so far not been conspicuously obvious amongst the fraternity of consumers. True it is that in Athens there is a consumers' society over a quarter of a century old, which in 1913 had a capital of 511,000 drachmas (£20,440) and a turnover of 1,028,498 drachmas (£41,140), but its membership is reserved to persons belonging to the military and civil service, and as its specific characteristic is the supply of commodities on credit on a scale proportioned to the rank of the members it will be seen how far its methods diverge from those of the classic co-operative type.

Productive co-operation in Athens is rather better represented. There is a Co-operative Shoemakers' Society, whose activities were greatly in evidence in connection with Government contracts when Greece was at war. In addition to this may be mentioned the formation (in 1913) of a Publishing Society on a co-operative basis, for starting a paper entitled *The People*, the specific object being to serve the interests of the working class. On the other hand, the fact that the tailors in Athens have a purchases and sales society for their common benefit may be taken as an illustration of co-operation in the sphere of private enterprise.

Generally speaking, co-operation amongst workers in Greece appears to be made subsidiary to trade union ends, or professional interests as the term goes. In this connection the Guild of Workers and Handworkers of Lamia, whose statutes were sanctioned in 1905, may be taken as representative of various associations. Practically speaking, the society acts in the dual capacity of a savings bank and benefit society for its members. It possesses a working capital, accepts deposits from its members, and with its funds it grants loans and makes advances on security to landlords and others at 6 and 7 per cent. interest. On medical benefits and so forth for its members the society expends several hundred pounds yearly.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

Up to the present, agrarian co-operation, in the forms of cattle breeding, the joint renting of pastures, joint cheese making, joint credit, purchase, and usage, takes the foremost place. Of organisations of the last-named type the Almpros Agricultural Association may be regarded as a leading type. The association, which was founded in

1900 (but not firmly grounded on a co-operative basis till eight years afterwards), has a capital of 80,000 drachmas (£3,200), a membership of something under 200 to whom advances are made, and to whom is accorded the joint use of the association's threshing machines and other agricultural implements. Similar associations in different places are in Liopessi, St. George, Politica, Vothena, in Crete, and in the region of ancient Olympus.

Up to recent years the Government showed little or no interest in co-operative affairs. The enactment of 1915, however, together with the steps taken by the Ministry of National Economy, has served to give the movement an impetus and to stimulate the increase of societies of a co-operative character.



HOLLAND.

Area, 12,648 square miles, or a little more than twice the size of Yorkshire. Population, bordering on 6½ millions, equivalent to an average density of 514 per square mile.

THE credit for opening the first co-operative store in Holland has been accorded to the "Neerlands Werkman" Society, established in the year 1864, a score of years later than the enterprise of the Rochdale Pioneers; but that the co-operative idea did not begin to grip before the next decade is suggested by the opening of the first stores at Nieuw Lekkerland in 1877 and at Utrecht and The Hague in 1878. In 1900 the number of stores societies recorded was 74; the increase to 271 in 1914 betokening the progress of recent years, taken in connection with 126 bread bakeries, 10 slaughteries, and 33 fuel societies recorded for the same year; 11 clothes and shoe factories and six printing establishments at the same time constituting the co-operative productive undertakings in the sphere of manufactures and crafts.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION.

The representative of organised distributive co-operation is the Netherlands Co-operative Union (Nederlandsche Coöperatieve Bond), which, as a neutral institution, has been the central unifying force since its foundation in 1889. From 1890 down to 1914, when the "Handelskamer" was converted into a separate institution, the Union carried on wholesale operations as well. The comparatively slow growth of the Union affords an indication of the separatist tendencies which the Union has had to contend with. The figures given herewith show the position both before war-time and afterwards:—

Year.	Affiliated Societies.	Total Membership.
1913.....	159	95,682
1914.....	162	99,234
1915.....	151	99,785
1916.....	161	135,079

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The Union includes a sprinkling of co-operative bakeries, restaurants, butter and cheese-producing societies, and building associations, along with the stores societies. The first Congress was held in 1898. At the last Congress in 1917 resolutions were passed recommending standard conditions for co-operative employés, and empowering the appointment of a joint committee to determine the question of promoting closer relations between the distributive and agricultural movements.

THE CO-OPERATIVE PRESS.—The official organ of the Union is *De Coöperator*, issued fortnightly, and which is a development of the *Maandblad*, or *Monthly*, first issued in 1903. The Union has also issued an annual year booklet (*Jaarboekje*) since the year 1891.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

The fact that the "Handelskamer," or Wholesale, has been transformed into an institution separate from the Union entitles it to a specific record. When first established as the commercial department of the Union in 1890, the Handelskamer took over the connection of the Self-help Conjoint Purchasing Society (*Gezamenlijke Inkoop van Eigen Hulp*), which had been founded at Amsterdam in 1882, and whose headquarters had been transferred to Rotterdam in 1883. At the time of the transfer to the Handelskamer, the "Conjoint Purchasing Society" had 16 affiliated societies, whilst 30.3 per cent. of its sales were made to one society, the "Self-help Co-operative Store" at The Hague. From 1900 the Handelskamer acted in the capacity of a wholesale trading agency, charging cost price, plus commission; but coincident with the opening of a warehouse in 1907 it commenced the wholesale trade on the Rochdale plan. In 1911 it acquired its own premises in the *Ruigeplaatweg* at Rotterdam. In 1914, by the decision of Congress, the Handelskamer ceased to be the commercial institution of the Union, and was reorganised as a distinct institution endowed with legal personality. Two years later the growth of trade brought about the extension of premises. Of the total trade of the Handelskamer from the foundation it is recorded that 34½ per cent. has consisted of sales to a single society (the Self-help Store Society at The Hague). On an average the affiliated societies down to 1915 obtained only a third of the amount of their purchases from the Handelskamer, the majority much less. Herewith is the Handelskamer's record for the years 1913-16 inclusive:—

Year.	Societies.	Membership	Total Turnover.	
			Florins.	£
1913.....	133 ...	90,189 ...	4,593,876 ...	367,510
1914.....	138 ...	93,182 ...	4,941,042 ...	397,284
1915.....	159 ...	111,214 ...	6,236,095 ...	498,888
1916.....	225 ...	143,127 ...	8,977,305 ...	718,184

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

The figures for 1914 are indicative of the dimensions the movement has attained since the beginning of the century:—

Co-operative Dairies	798
Agricultural Purchasing Societies	362
Agricultural Sales Societies	39
Egg Selling Societies.....	8
Export Slaughteries.....	2
Farmers' Savings and Loan Banks	621
Cattle Insurance Societies.....	8

The number of co-operative societies for other purposes are shown as follows:—

Building Societies	269
Town Savings and Loan Societies	94
Fire Insurance Societies.....	20
Life Insurance Societies	7
Sick and Benefit Societies.....	9
Burial Societies	2
Miscellaneous Societies	188

The total number of co-operative societies of all forms, including those of the distributive movement, amounting to 2,938.



ITALY.

Area (including Sicily and Sardinia), 110,620 square miles, or nearly twice that of England and Wales. Population, 35½ millions, or an average of 320 per square mile. Agriculture is the leading industry.

ALL forms of co-operation are represented in Italy, distributive co-operation leading in the matter of membership, the agricultural movement in volume of trade, and the labour co-operative movement in the number of societies. Taking all forms together, it is calculated that the number of co-operators approximates to one-and-a-half millions.

As regards distributive co-operation (taking the kingdom as a whole), its position and progress are indicated by the latest co-operative census figures—those for 1914.

Year.	Total Societies.	Societies Reporting.	Total Membership.	Total Turnover. Lire.
1910	1,764	1,623	346,474	_____
1914	2,408	1,970	411,358	156,841,214 = £6,273,648

Including non-reporting societies the total turnover is estimated at 180 million lire, or £7,200,000. The average membership per society was 215 in 1910, and 209 in 1914. As between 1902 and 1914 the average sales per society increased from 68,444 lire to 79,614 lire, or from £2,738 to £3,185.

The latest phase in Milan is the co-operative-municipal alliance, the co-operative organisations, with the Unione Cooperativa at the head, and the municipality working hand in hand with the dual

object of extending the food supply and keeping down the cost of living. In this connection the *Unione Cooperativa* acts as a wholesale as well as a distributive organisation for a whole range of commodities on the municipality's behalf. In Florence, also, the municipality has linked hands with co-operation, the municipality deriving corn supplies from the Government and entrusting to the leading co-operative society the task of milling, bread baking, and sale. In Prato the municipality has joined forces with co-operation as in Milan. In the seaport city of Genoa both co-operative stores and private traders are made the intermediaries for the sale of municipal flour.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION.

Contemporaneously with the foundation of the *Unione Cooperativa* the assembling of the first two Italian Congresses in Milan in 1886 and 1887, together with the foundation of the Italian Union or National League of Co-operative Societies (*Lega Nazionale delle Cooperative*), and the establishment of the official organ *La Cooperazione Italiana*, are events testifying to the new spirit abroad and to the initiation of a strong forward movement, the scope for unification and development being indicated by the statistics for 1889, in which year the distributive societies recorded for all Italy numbered 671, two-thirds of them being situated in the three northern provinces of Piedmont, Lombardy, and Tuscany, Piedmont alone containing one-third of the total. Coming down to the latest decade, we are enabled to compare the present with the past. The old-time alliance between the co-operative movement and the societies of mutual aid is maintained to this day, which accounts for the juxtaposition of the figures below:—

Year.	Societies affiliated to the National League.	Societies affiliated to the Mutual Aid Federation.	Total.
1910	1,933	783	2,716
1915	2,182	827	3,009

This increase is due largely to strenuous effort and recruiting, inasmuch as the war dealt a severe shock to the movement, no fewer than 512 societies disappearing from the Federation roll in 1914 and 1915, the abnormal loss being more than repaired by new enrolments. To quote the report: "Thus in 1914 alone, of 313 lapses from our list, 170 took place in the last four months of the year; and in 1915, of 295 lapses, 100 of them took place in the month of January; and of the total, about 85 per cent. lapsed by reason of death or liquidation."

From the beginning of the war the League has signalled itself by its strenuous campaign on behalf of a co-ordination of forces—co-operative, municipal, and governmental—to promote and regularise the food supply and prevent speculation, and keep down the cost of living.

THE CO-OPERATIVE WHOLESALE.

The Italian Co-operative Wholesale (Consorzio Italiano delle Cooperative di Consumo), though growing, as yet shows no conspicuous signs of the larger development, and operations as yet are conducted on the minor scale through lack of support.

Year.	Number of Connected Societies.	Wholesale Turnover.	
		Lire.	£
1913.....	—	1,210,000	48,400
1914.....	—	1,410,000	56,400
1915.....	210	2,502,170	100,087
1916.....	314	3,240,000	129,600

A constituent part of the League's policy is the establishment of close relations with the trade union movement. The alliance proposal, as expounded by the League's most prominent official (Antonio Vergnanini) at the Congress of the General Confederation of Labour in May, 1914, may be summarised thus: "The Congress to recognise as indispensable a methodical understanding in regard to the common aims of the two movements, as well as the necessity of a closer alliance for dealing with mutual problems; the Congress to be asked also to declare as an essential condition of the alliance the obligation of co-operators to be trade unionists and of trade unionists to be co-operators, and of the obligation of reciprocal support between the two movements, and of trade union standards and conditions for co-operative employes."

THE CO-OPERATIVE LABOUR MOVEMENT.

Co-operative labour organisations, originally initiated in 1888 by Signor Marin, have become one of the features of Italy, just as labour artels have been one of the characteristics of Russia. These labour societies (or co-operative trade unions of builders, navvies, and labourers) specialise in labour contracts for the erecting of public edifices, road making, the making of railways and canals, the embankment of rivers, the reclamation of marshland, and so forth. The Union contracts for a given price, and then partitions out the contract to groups of its members, who receive instalments of pay as the work proceeds till the contract is finished and accounts are squared up. Here is the testimony given by the Director-General of Special Services in an official publication in 1914: "The public works undertaken by the co-operative labour societies do not cost more than those of the private contractors. Whilst it is true that the latter offer easy rebates and some modifications at times as regards conditions and prices before the contract is made, yet, after all, if demands are just, it is better to extirpate the root of contention from the very beginning, and the co-operative labour societies are much less litigious in character than the private contractors."

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In other words, the co-operative labour societies have made for straightforward business.

SOCIETIES OF PRODUCTION AND LABOUR.

	Total Societies.	Number Reporting.	Membership.	Working Funds.	
				Lire	£
1910...	1,871	1,357	212,387	31,481,000	1,255,240
1914...	3,015	1,884	257,149	33,255,540	1,330,222

The total contract business of the 1,884 reporting societies amounted to 163,732,000 lire, or £6,549,240. Comparing 1902 with 1914 the average business per society increased from 35,192 to 86,588 lire—that is, from £1,408 to £3,463.

CO-OPERATIVE STATISTICS.

According to the last co-operative census, the Italian movement in 1914 comprised 7,317 societies of various forms, with an estimated membership (including that of non-reporting societies) of 1,500,000, which means that, when the number of households is taken into calculation, the movement may be said to extend to 6½ million individuals, apart from those connected with credit co-operation. Including the non-reporting societies the total liquid capital is estimated at 150 million lire (£6,000,000), while the collective turnover of the societies giving information (5,036 in number) figured at over 648,248,000 lire, or £25,930,000 in round figures.

The following figures show the growth of the movement in whole and in parts during recent years:—

	1914.			1910.		
	Total No. of Societies.	Total No. of Societies Reporting.	No. of Members.	Total No. of Societies.	Total No. of Societies Reporting.	No. of Members.
Distributive	2,408	1,970	411,358	1,764	1,623	346,474
Production and Labour	3,015	1,884	257,149	1,871	1,357	212,387
Building.....	751	471	91,812	379	315	49,466
Agricultural	1,143	711	195,766	926	827	161,115
	7,317	5,036	956,085	4,940	4,122	769,442

The financial position of the movement is illustrated by the following figures for the reporting societies:—

	Liquid Capital. 1914. £	Reserve and other Funds. 1910. £
Distributive Societies	1,264,688	954,748
Societies of Production and Labour...	1,330,222	1,259,240
Building Societies	1,290,292	1,724,369
Agricultural Societies.....	867,514	627,488
	4,752,716	4,565,845

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Coming now to the turnover of the movement, the amount for each section and for the whole is indicated by the total figures recorded for the 5,036 societies reporting for 1914:—

	Lire.		£
Distributive Societies.....	156,841,214	6,273,648
Societies of Production and Labour	163,732,001	6,549,280
Building Societies.....	116,160,073	4,646,403
Agricultural Societies.....	211,514,782	8,460,591
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	648,248,070	25,929,922

The average turnover in the case of the 1,970 distributive societies reporting amounts to 79,614 lire, or £3,184. For the non-reporting stores societies (408 in number) the average turnover per society is estimated at 50,000 lire, or £2,000.

THE NATIONAL CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT INSTITUTE.

The above organisation (Istituto Nazionale di credito per la Cooperazione) has, during the three years of its existence, been playing an increasingly beneficial part as the central financial and financing organisation of the co-operative movement. The number of societies of one form or another having direct relations with the Institute, or indirect through their federations and associations, numbered 1,493 at the end of 1916, while the financial operations therewith amounted to 56,885,256 lire (£2,275,410), as against 42,802,768 lire (£1,712,110) for the year before. To labour co-operative organisations engaged on contracts for public works the Institute has been a great back-set.



NORWAY.

Area, 123,000 square miles. Population, 2½ millions, of whom 1,400,000 are dependent on agriculture and fishing. Average density of population, 20 per square mile.

THOUGH distributive co-operation in Norway dates back to the year 1865, when the first store was founded in Christiania, the story of its success and development as a movement belongs solely to the present century. In this connection it is interesting to note that of the 205 societies affiliated to Norway's Co-operative Union (Norges Kooperative Landsforening, now comprising about half the total of distributive societies in the country) no fewer than 195 have been established since the century began, and that the Union itself was successfully founded in 1906, after three previous

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experiments in 1894, 1898, and 1900 respectively. The following figures reveal the Union's progress:—

Year,	Societies.	Membership.	Total Turnover of Societies.	
			Kroner.	£
1913	136	23,769	9,379,200	521,067
1914	149	31,000	10,019,600	556,644
1915	172	34,848	16,252,300	902,906
1916	205	47,034	24,347,900	1,352,661

Indicative of the rising scale of prices are the average amounts of purchases per stores member during the three years, viz., 367kr., 398kr., and 543kr., *i.e.*, £20. 7s. 9d., £22. 2s. 3d., and £30. 3s. 4d. in the respective years.

THE WHOLESALE.

The Union's Wholesale department (established 1907) has made unabated progress from the commencement. The subjoined figures show the turnover for recent years:—

Year,	Turnover.	
	Kroner.	£
1913.....	2,437,100	135,394
1914.....	3,097,000	172,055
1915.....	4,457,900	247,650
1916.....	6,021,100	334,505

A banking department was opened in 1911.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

Owing to natural circumstances the agrarian co-operative movement had an advantage over store co-operation, a further advantage being the promotion of developments by the old-established Society for Norway's Weal (Selskabet for Norges Vel). The ramifications and extent of agrarian co-operation at the end of 1913, together with distributive societies, is shown by authoritative figures:

	Number of Societies		Turnover.	
	Societies.	Reporting.	Kroner.	£
Dairies and Cheeseries.....	600	600	26,000,000	1,444,444
Butter Producing Societies.....	37	—	467,900	25,994
Co-operative Slaughteries	2	1	1,814,881	100,827
Industrial Productive Societies ...	5	5	9,771,143	542,841
Butter Exporting	6	4	1,443,362	80,187
Egg Selling	31	22	298,017	16,556
Co-operative Timber	73	43	2,824,430	156,913
Sales	3	3	1,210,000	67,222
Distributive	370	252	18,544,665	1,030,259
	1,127	930	62,374,298	3,465,243

In addition to the list it would appear that there were some 1,344 local supply societies, with five central associations, accounting for the supply of more than half the total requirements in the matter of artificial fertilisers, seeds, implements, and so forth.

RUSSIA.*

Russia is a vast country, stretching from the Baltic to the Pacific on the one hand, and from the Arctic to the sub-tropical zone on the other. Its area is $8\frac{1}{2}$ million square miles, equal to one-ninth of the land of the globe. Three-quarters of the land is in Asia. European Russia has over 2 million

square miles, is 10 times the size of France, and 23 times that of Great Britain. Russia has 182 million inhabitants, $135\frac{1}{2}$ million being in Europe. Russia adds to her population every ten years a number equal to the entire population of Great Britain or France.

POLITICAL RETROSPECT.

ACCORDING to an approximate estimate the Russian co-operative movement in its totality comprised at the beginning of 1917 46,000 societies, with a collective membership of 13 millions; distributive co-operation, with its 20,000 societies, accounting for nearly one-half the number, and overtopping in this specification all other forms. And the surprising thing is that these figures practically represent only a dozen years' growth. In the case of the distributive movement, the rate at which co-operation has shot up to gigantic dimensions is denoted by the twenty-fold increase of societies since 1905 and the doubling of the number between 1915 and 1917; whilst, taking all forms of co-operation together, the number of societies has more than octupled during the course of a dozen years. This torrential pace of advance becomes all the more striking when viewed in connection with the previous tardiness of growth, 1,000 societies in 1905 being all that the distributive movement could show after 40 years, and 5,700 being the sum-total of societies that all forms of co-operation could muster at the end of four decades. All this is to say that the co-operative movement, like Russia itself, stands in its abnormality outside the common category of things; an abnormality explicitly shown by the fact that the great landmarks of co-operative history are those of the nation—the emancipation of the serfs in 1861, the rebellion of 1905, the war of Armageddon, and the never-to-be-forgotten March revolution of 1917.

The earliest co-operative experiments in Russia took the form of productive artels of cabinet-makers, bootmakers, bookbinders, and so forth, initiated by philanthropic reformers in the early days of serf emancipation, that is to say, in the early sixties of the last century; the rapid foundering of these societies showing, however, that the introduction of the earliest and crudest form of Western co-operation was an enterprise which stood no earthly chance of success. Subsequently co-operation received a fresh start by the foundation of the first distributive store in Riga in 1865, and the formation of the first credit society in the village of Dorovalov (Kostroma Province) in 1866. From these two undertakings the

* A much larger article on Russian Co-operation appears in the *Co-operative Wholesale Societies' "Annual,"* 1918.

Russian movement derives its origin and traces its descent. But here, again, on both hands the defects of a movement initiated from above and not from below were revealed from the outset. The credit societies of the Schulze-Delitzsch pattern were so ill-adapted to the needs of poverty-stricken peasant landholders that the mortality of the societies for over a decade amounted to 50 per cent. As for the stores movement, its history for a considerable period was even more depressing. Established at first in the towns by local officials, town gentry and professional men, who became founders, members, and controllers all combined, while the commonalty figured mainly as customers, the fate of one-half the stores might be summed as lingering consumption, ending in premature demise. As for the stores established in connection with industrial undertakings from the year 1870, their characteristics may be realised by the fact that they were controlled by the firms and their leading officials, and conducted so as to realise the maximum dividends. Literally speaking, they were simply Truck shops in co-operative form, and two-thirds of all the consumers' societies established in the eighties of the last century were plutocratic institutions of this character.

In the early nineties, however, the distributive co-operative movement made a new departure. In the towns the movement spread to the lower middle class, and as a result of the famine of 1891 it spread under the auspices of the "intelligentsia" to the rural districts, where the greatest need lay. Under the pressure of economic necessity, combined with the power of example and the growth of intelligence, co-operation at last took on the character of a movement advancing with accelerated pace, as was shown by the doubling in the number of ratified statutes during each quinquennial period from 1890 to 1905; and this despite the arbitrary delays of officialdom, for be it noted that up to 1897 the sanction of the Minister of the Interior had to be obtained before a society could be founded, and after that year no store could be opened without the consent of the Provincial Governor. Meantime the growth of a great agrarian movement, with the historic watchword, "Land and Liberty" (*Zemlyā i Volya*), betokened the urge of the time which ultimately eventuated in the revolution of 1905—a revolution which, in the history of co-operation as in that of the Russian people, has a special significance, denoting as it does the end of acceptance of tutelage, the growth beyond leading-strings, and the advent of an economic as well as of a political democracy, able and determined to manage its own affairs. Significant of the new spirit and of the generated forces was the pace of the movement, which after the revolution marched onward with seven-leagued boots. In the brief span of five years (1905-1910) both the distributive and the credit societies showed quadrupled figures, and what is more, the consumers' societies, which had formerly been completely outpaced

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by the credit societies, now made such headway that their position betokened a challenge for the premiership. Under the circumstances the statistical record of the two forms of co-operation becomes interesting to note.

Year.	No. of Ratified Statutes of Consumers' Societies.	No. of Ratified Statutes of Loan-Savings Societies.
1865.....	2	...
1870.....	73	11
1875.....	92	514
1880.....	117	995
1885.....	175	1,189
1890.....	260	1,276
1895.....	492	1,330
1900.....	897	1,550
1905.....	1,804	1,629
1910.....	6,799	6,679
1915.....	13,300	15,500

From the beginning of the war in 1914 the bankrupt statesmanship of the old regime became revealed by a mismanagement of affairs so gross and so colossal that history can provide no parallel. In the end the smouldering fire of revolution burst into flame, and in one short week in March, 1917, the ancient tyranny perished, and the Russian nation stood free, erect, and triumphant. Meantime the movement has been rushing along with the force of a cataract, for the chaos created by the old regime has resulted in the towns population all over Russia being brought to the verge of starvation, under which circumstance all sorts and conditions of men have joined the co-operative ranks, from the townsmen and peasant in remote regions to the pressmen and clergy in Petrograd; and last, but not least, even members of the Duma have formed a co-operative society of their own. In the brief space of two years the number of active consumers' societies has increased from 10,900 to 20,000, whereby the distributive movement takes the primacy over all other branches of co-operation, while at the same time Russia in the matter of collective co-operation and membership has come to take precedence over every country on the globe.

Societies.	1905.	1914.	1915.	1916.	Jan. 1st, 1917.
Credit and Loan-Savings.....	1,434	12,751	14,350	15,450	16,057
Consumers'.....	1,000	10,080	10,900	15,205	20,000
Agricultural.....	1,275	5,000	5,000	5,500	6,000
Kustar Artels & Butter-making	2,000	3,000	3,300	3,600	4,000
Total.....	5,709	30,831	33,550	39,755	46,057

The total membership of all co-operative organisations at the beginning of 1917 has been estimated at close on 13 millions, which means that nearly a third of the whole population of Russia comes within the sphere of co-operation. The total membership of the distributive movement may be computed at the approximate figure of three millions, of which the peasant membership comprises three-fourths. Four-fifths of the stores are village stores. Meanwhile, the process of unification is going on at a gratifying pace, 12,500 distributive societies being recorded as affiliated to unions or federations at the end of 1916, as compared with 4,000 affiliated or federated at the close of 1915. As for the collective sales (including those of the Moscow Union), 257 million roubles (£27,052,000) was the estimate for the end of 1916, as against 70 million roubles (£7,368,000) for the year previous. The inauguration of productive undertakings, such as corn mills, leather works, soap manufactures, and agricultural implement works, by regional federations is one of the features of the time.

Of co-operative unions of all kinds there were by the time of the revolution some 300 all told, only 100 of which had received official sanction, the other 200 working on the basis of private agreements, the feasibility of this method being a happy discovery, enabling societies to federate and so to escape from the *impasse* arising from the tactics of the bureaucracy, with whom the hostility to the formation of co-operative unions was a marked feature.



RUSSIAN POLAND.

Area, 14,107 square miles. Pre-war population, 13 millions, or 276 per square mile. Despite the expansion of commerce and industry of late years, as typified by Warsaw, with close on a

million inhabitants, and Lodz, with nearly half a million, the livelihood of three-fourths of the population of Poland is, nevertheless, bound up with the ancient occupation of husbandry.

AT the close of 1914 the stores movement in Poland embraced 1,500 societies and over, with a total membership of 120,000, the striking fact being that the movement, practically speaking, has been the product of a single decade.

Historically speaking, the stores movement in Russian Poland dates from 1869, when the first distributive society, "Mercurius," was founded at Warsaw, and the second at Plotsk; a co-operative savings bank being opened also at Radom in the same year. The tardiness of growth, however, is revealed by the fact that in 1903 (*i.e.*, after 34 years) distributive co-operation could muster no more than 63 societies all told. While the slow development of industrialism must be accounted as a contributory condition of the dilatory progress of co-operation,

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political repression may be set down as a predominant factor in view of the transformation inaugurated by the revolution of 1905, the far-reaching effects of which became visible in the resurgence of co-operation in Poland, as elsewhere. In 1906, the very year after the revolution, a strenuous agitation on behalf of the co-operative idea was commenced. An association of co-operators was formed, the co-operative weekly, *Spolem* was founded, propagandist literature was spread broadcast, and an information bureau was subsequently established. Under the combined influence of the spirit of freedom and the spirit of enlightenment co-operation entered on a phenomenal era of progress, close on 500 societies being founded within the course of two years (1906-8). By the end of 1910 the movement could count 730 societies with a collective membership of 100,000, 40 per cent. of them being workers' societies, and 60 per cent. of them peasants; the spread of co-operation in the rural districts still further showing itself at the close of 1913 by the fact that the peasants' societies had increased to a thousand in number. At the close of 1914, Russian Poland had over 1,500 consumers' societies, with a collective membership of 120,000.

THE CO-OPERATIVE UNION AND WHOLESALE.

Meanwhile the formation, in 1911, of the Union of Consumers' Societies (*Związek stowarzyszeń spożywczych*) at Warsaw, had provided the movement with an organic centre, all the more that, synchronously with the acquisition of its own premises in 1913, the Union launched out as a Wholesale as well, 274 affiliated societies, with a collective turnover of seven million roubles (£736,342), furnishing an effective basis for operations, whilst the *rapprochement* with the rural societies to the number of 600 provided a prospect of ever-widening operations, till the invasion by the German armies and the capture of Warsaw came as a stunning blow. But that the Union has more than recovered itself is made clear by the report to the general meeting, held at Warsaw in August, 1917, according to which "the Union, which comprised (before the war) 274 societies, with 36,000 members and a total turnover of seven million roubles (£736,342), now comprised 41,000 members, with a total sales of 14 million roubles (£1,473,684), while the one *dépôt* has been increased to seven."

THE WARSAW BANK.

Of credit societies there was a Union with headquarters at Plotsk, whilst the Warsaw Co-operative Bank (founded in 1910) had a central credit institute, which was making fair progress down to the outbreak of war, the mere declaration of which caused a terrific run on the bank, the stoppages by private banks of the discounting of bills payable in

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Poland and the Baltic Provinces proving another severe blow. The career of the bank is proclaimed by its turnover:—

Year.	Turnover.	
	Roubles.	£
1910.....	87,000,000 8,700,000
1911.....	167,000,000 16,700,000
1912.....	232,000,000 23,200,000
1913.....	270,000,000 27,000,000
1914.....	195,000,000 19,500,000

Between 1912 and 1914 the capital had been increased from one million to two million roubles, 49 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of the shares being held by co-operative societies.

After weathering the crisis at the outbreak of war, the Bank had to face another catastrophe on the capture of Warsaw by the German army.



SPAIN.

Area, 191,000 square miles. Population, 21,000,000; three-fourths dependent on agriculture. Average density of population, 110 per square mile.

SINCE its inception in the year 1860 co-operation in Spain has been chiefly associated with the industrial and commercial province of Catalonia—the leading province. In the first pioneering period the movement, comprising various distributive and productive undertakings, had a short life and the reverse of a merry one; six short years sufficing for its rise and fall, its birth, death, and complete extinction. So discouraging were the results that co-operation was heard of no more till the year 1881, when the resurrection period began; five societies in the course of two years, with an individual membership ranging from 25 to 100, sufficing to proclaim the arduous task of co-operative construction. In 1887, however, came the law placing co-operative affairs on a sounder basis, and therewith development began, the making of headway during the decade being denoted by events. The establishment in 1897, with a nucleus of 45 societies, of the Catalonian Federation or Union (*Camara Regional de Sociedades Cooperativas de Cataluña-Baleare*), and the assembling in 1900 and 1902 of the first Co-operative Congresses, as well as the issue of a co-operative organ, the “Catalonian Co-operative Review” (*Revista Cooperativa Catalana*)—events sufficiently bespeaking the efforts of Juan Salas Anton and his confrères—the uphill task of unification being attested by the proportion of societies still remaining outside the

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Union during the period of growth. As between 1906 and 1914 the figures enable us to compare the past and present position of distributive co-operation in Catalonia:—

Year.	Societies.	Membership.	Collective Sales.	
			Pesetas.	£
1906.....	150	8,000	10,000,000	400,000
1914.....	308	27,947	14,574,000	582,960

Co-operative production is represented by various undertakings, amongst which may be mentioned the Redentora in Barcelona, which manufactures wax candles; the Artística Carpintera, which manufactures furniture; the Sociedad de las Paileros, a boiler-making society; and the Paz y Trabajo, or Peace and Labour Society, which runs a shoe manufactory. There are also sundry building societies which specialise in the erection of cheaper working-class dwellings.

As tokens of the forward movement in recent years, one may point to the reassembling (after a considerable period) of the National Co-operative Congress, at which 600 delegates foregathered in December, 1913, at Barcelona, thanks to the initiative of the Catalonian Union, under whose auspices the Congress was held; a further indication of the new spirit being the establishing of a new regional Wholesale for Catalonia, the opening celebration of which took place in Barcelona in February, 1915. As the birthplace of the forward movement, and as a centre of co-operation, Barcelona ranks indisputably as the foremost city in Spain. While the plethora of societies is certainly embarrassing in specific directions, there is, however, a laudable display of the social spirit.

With regard to Spain as a whole the paucity of regular statistics renders the task of summarising the whole movement one of some difficulty. However, for 1908 we have a record for the whole kingdom, showing the position of the movement as follows:—

	Number of Societies.	Total Membership.
District Societies	182	29,000
Productive Societies	17	4,900
Co-operative Credit Societies	42	6,500
Productive and Credit Societies	1	200
Credit and Supply Societies	22	19,150
Productive, Credit, and Distributive Societies	1	100
Building Societies	3	700
Sick Benefit Societies	5	—

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THE . .
RIGHT SHOPS

TO SHOP AT ARE
YOUR OWN SHOPS
AND THE

RIGHT GOODS

TO ASK FOR ARE
YOUR OWN BRANDS,
VIZ.:

S.C.W.S.

DEPEND UPON IT, LOYALTY TO YOUR OWN SOCIETY AND YOUR
OWN MILLS, FACTORIES, AND WORKSHOPS

**IS THE VERY
BEST POLICY.**

THE FIRST DUTY OF A CO-OPERATOR IS
TO **BE** A CO-OPERATOR.

The Workers' Educational Association.

THE W.E.A. is a body which seeks to provide facilities for the further education of working people, to take advantage of all existing means to this end, and to co-operate with the Universities and others in devising fresh means for education. By its monthly magazine—the “High-

way”—its pamphlets, and special cheap editions of books of an educational character, it seeks to stimulate and to satisfy educational desire.

¶ The W.E.A. is unsectarian, non-party political, democratic, and progressive.

¶ The W.E.A. at present consists of 2,336 Organisations, including the Trades Union Congress, General Federation of Trade Unions, 859 Trade Unions, Trades Councils and Branches, the Co-operative Union, 408 Co-operative Committees, 205 Adult Schools, Brotherhoods, &c., 11 University Bodies, 12 Local Education Authorities, the Club and Institute Union, 92 Working Men's Clubs, Institutes, &c., 182 Teachers' Associations, 57 Education and Literary Societies, 75 Classes and Study Circles. 431 Various Societies, mainly of workpeople, are already affiliated.—*Annual Report, 1917.*

¶ The W.E.A., having affiliated branches all over Britain, has initiated spare-time classes in such subjects as Biology, Political Economy, Industrial History, Sociology, Political Science, English Literature, Evolution of Government, and others, up to University standards. The W.E.A. will consider the provision of a class anywhere within reason if not less than 25 to 30 students signify their wish for such a class.

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LONDON.

SWEDEN.

Area, 171,000 square miles. Population, 5,800,000, or about 34 per square mile. Chief industries: Agriculture, forestry, and metal mining.

THE origins of distributive co-operation in Sweden, the organised movement of which now embraces nearly 800 societies with a membership of over 200,000, pertain to the late sixties of the last century, three societies at least of the Co-operative Union serving as historical reminders of the pioneering age. Recent research would appear to show that the first store was that of Smedjebacken, opened in the year 1867, though, unfortunately, the society itself did not live long to tell the tale. As for the source of ideas, light is cast on this point by the declaration that "without any doubt, accounts of English co-operation were published about the middle of the sixties," and by the fact that Atvid's Society, founded in 1869, owed its origin to the initiative of an engineer who had made the acquaintance of the movement in England. Not till the close of the century did co-operation show signs of vigorous life or growth, the establishment of the Co-operative Union (Kooperativa Förbundet) in 1899, the year after the foundation of the Swedish Labour Union, revealing the close coincidence of the co-operative revival and the resurgence of the working-class movement. After devoting four years to the work of education and propaganda, the Union then commenced the organisation of trade by establishing its Wholesale in 1903. On the occasion of its ten years' jubilee the Union embraced 391 societies, with a membership of 65,052. For the war period the increased figures are noticeable.

Year.	Total Societies.	Societies Reporting.	Membership.	Collective Turnover.	
				Kroner.	£
1913....	560	409	103,369	32,710,818	1,817,268
1914....	583	537	111,293	39,466,473	2,192,582
1915....	678	581	127,876	54,608,695	3,033,816
1916....	785	737	over 200,000	81,661,807	4,536,767

N.B.—A later revised official calculation gives 563 societies for 1913, and 608 for 1914, with figures for the two succeeding years as follows:—

Year.	Societies.	Total Membership.	
1915.....	687	181,538	{ 122,084 Distributive Members. 59,454 Members of Insurance Society.
1916.....	792	227,151	{ 149,205 Distributive Members. 77,946 Members of Insurance Society.

The average membership ranges from 530 for societies founded before 1900, to 96 for societies newly formed, the average membership for the whole number being 189 per society. In 1915 the five largest societies averaged a little over 2,000 members each, with average sales exceeding a million kroner (£55,555).

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THE UNION'S WHOLESALE.

From the commencement in 1903 the Wholesale's business has shown an annual increase, apart from the year 1909. The staff comprises 108 persons.

Year.	Turnover.	
	Kroner.	£
1913.....	7,621,304 423,406
1914.....	9,889,252 549,403
1915.....	16,497,640 916,536
1916.....	22,013,232 1,222,957

The question of starting productive undertakings was mooted at the Congress of 1917.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

Though agrarian co-operation has existed in Sweden for decades, the history of the organised movement dates from 1906. As for the relative proportions of the various classes of co-operative agrarian societies, the figures for 1910 afford some indication:—

Local Purchase Societies	940
Co-operative Dairies	477
Co-operative Breweries and Distilleries.....	85
Co-operative Slaughteries	8

In addition to these there are a number of egg-selling societies.



SWITZERLAND.

Area, 16,000 square miles, or a little over half that of Scotland. Population, 3,800,000, or an average of 240 per square mile. As all the world knows, Switzerland is the classic land of the Initiative and the Referendum, and presents the unique spectacle of a nation composed of three diverse peoples (German-speaking in the east, French-speaking in the west, and Italian-speaking in the south) unified

in an ultra-democratic state by the common passion for liberty, equality, and fraternity—of which principles the Helvetian Republic formed a shining exemplar for centuries before they became the watchwords of the great French Revolution, whose supporters, in no small measure, derived inspiration from the writings of the famous Swiss, Jean Jacques Rousseau.

THE wide development of co-operation is one of the distinctive features of the Swiss Republic, as shown by the registered figure of 9,693 societies, associations, or organisations for the year 1916. According to the tabulated figures given in the official organ of the Swiss Union, distributive co-operation in the same year embraced 827 societies, with a collective membership of 350,000, and a total turnover of 190 million francs (£7,600,000); the collective turnover of three Wholesales amounting to 91 million francs, or £3,641,000. The triton among the minnows is the Union of Swiss Distributive Societies (Verband schweiz. Konsumvereine, or V.S.K.), the societies of the Union having collectively between 80 and 90 per cent. of the total membership and trade of the stores movement;

the other three Unions, viz., the Union of East Swiss Agricultural Societies, the "Konkordia" Union, embracing a few various social societies, the Valais Union of Distributive Societies, together with the non-unified societies, constituting only a minor factor. Herewith are the figures:—

	Societies.	Membership.	Total Turnover of Societies. Francs.	Wholesale Turnover. Francs.
V. S. K. ¹	421	305,326	159,799,945	74,658,943
V. o L. G. ²	200	15,578	12,643,470	14,744,207
V. d. G. K. ³	34	—	2,892,808	2,021,535
V. d. W. K. V. ⁴ ..	7	—	—	—
Independent	165	20,000	25,000,000	—
	827	350,000	190,000,000	91,024,685
		Approximate.	Approximate.	

¹Verband schweiz. Konsumvereine. ²Verband ostschweiz. landwirtschaftl. Genossenschaften. ³Verband der Genossenschaften „Konkordia.“ ⁴Verband der Wallisior Konsumvereine.

N.B.—The inclusion of non-registered societies and some others accounts for the difference between the above figure and that given later on.

THE UNION OF SWISS DISTRIBUTIVE SOCIETIES.

To the stores movement in Switzerland belongs the credit of being the pioneer movement on the European continent as concerns the Rochdale plan. To-day the Union of Swiss Consumers' Societies contains a historical landmark in the shape of the Fontainemelon Co-operative Society, founded as far back as the year 1851, whilst the foremost society in Switzerland to-day—the Allgemeine Konsum-Verein of Basle, founded in 1865, as well as the Co-operative Suisse de Consommation de Genève, founded in 1868, and the third in order of commercial importance, rank as the leading contemporary memorials of the following decade.

With the establishment of the Union of Swiss Consumers' Societies (Verband schweiz. Konsumvereine Basel), or V.S.K., in 1890, began the era of collective developments, the first and foremost of which was the organisation of the Wholesale in 1893. Here follows the record for recent years:—

Year.	Affiliated Societies.	Wholesale Trade.	
		Francs.	£
1913	387	44,400,428	1,776,017
1914	396	45,717,076	1,828,683
1915	407	50,193,161	2,007,727
1916	421	74,658,943	2,986,358

For 1914 the membership of the affiliated societies was 276,431; in 1916, 305,326. The staff of the Union itself at the end of 1916 comprised 603 persons.

OTHER FORMS OF CO-OPERATION.

Collectively speaking, the agrarian forms of co-operation greatly overshadow all others, co-operative dairies taking the lead, and

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cattle breeding societies next in virtue of numbers. As to the ramifications and growth of co-operation in general, the subjoined official statistics afford a clear indication:—

Species of Societies.	1910.	1915.	1916.
Distributive	479	736	756
Water Supply	347	408	410
Electricity	123	279	314
Lighting.....	22	19	20
Other Consumers' Societies	59	73	74
Building and Dwelling	19	37	38
Agricultural Purchasing.....	593	734	759
Cattle Breeding	892	1,228	1,252
Machine Using.....	107	150	153
Cheese and Milk Converting.....	2,045	2,377	2,466
Distilleries	49	51	51
Fruit, Wine, Corn and Honey Converting, and Bee Rearing ...	104	127	135
Improvements	40	53	53
Alpine Pastures	35	54	57
Insurance.....	283	629	686
Raiffeisen Loan	132	176	188
Credit, Savings and Banking	192	227	225
Trade and Handicraft Purchasing..	42	81	82
Trade Halls.....	5	5	6
Miscellaneous	1,273	1,819	1,968
	<u>6,841</u>	<u>9,263</u>	<u>9,693</u>



THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

Area, 516,000 square miles, plus 609,000 square miles embraced by the national territories, or 1,125,000 square miles in all. Population, between 9 and 10 millions. Sheep and cattle raising are the leading industries, and

the exports are limited to raw products, amongst which wool occupies a leading place. Of late years wheat growing has been carried on on an expanding scale.

THE pastoral character of the Argentine has so far afforded little scope for the advance of distributive co-operation. What societies there are are few in number and of inconsiderable dimensions, amongst which the Workers' Co-operative Household, Credit, and Building Society (El Hogar obrero Cooperativa de credito edificacion y consumo) at Buenos Ayres occupies the leading place. This society was founded in 1905, and mustered at the end of the first year of its existence 19 members and a share capital (unpaid) amounting to 183½ pesos, or a little over £36. Two years later the membership had grown to 155 and the share capital to 5,512 pesos (£1,102). In 1916 it could count 3,173 members, and a capital of 2,044,200 pesos (£408,840), of which 884,462 pesos (£176,893) had been paid in.

At the same date the credit branch (which had been started first) comprised 145 credits to the total amount of 518,150 pesos (£103,750),

relating to 145 dwelling establishments with 834 households. The building department, which began operations in 1910, accounted for 163 dwelling establishments, of which the society, in the middle of 1916, possessed 51 (with 222 tenants), the book value of which was estimated at 413,000 pesos (£82,600). In 1911 the society commenced storekeeping; by the middle of 1916 the stores department comprised 685 members, and computed its annual sales at 119,921 pesos (£13,984). As a considerable portion of this amount comprises the purchases of other societies, it would appear that the organisation is developing into a wholesale for societies in the surrounding localities.

The society has a bakery fitted up in the latest style, and turning out over 100,000 kilos of bread yearly; and, in addition to its other activities, engages in the work of co-operative insurance, and conducts a periodical under the title of *El Hogar Obrero*.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

This branch of co-operation is mainly confined, so far, to the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Cordoba, and Entre Rios, and the position of affairs is indicated by the official statistics for 1913, which recorded 34 societies, 22 of them for general purposes, possessing collectively a working capital of close on 850,000 pesos (£170,000) and a total membership ranging between 5,000 and 6,000, the total annual business transacted amounting to 4,900,000 pesos (£980,000). There were also eight mutual hail insurance societies, with a total membership of 7,700, a capital fund of 1,400,000 pesos (£280,000), and insurances effected to the collective amount of 40 million pesos (£8,000,000). Three irrigation societies, also based on conducted principles, possessed a membership of 172 and a capital of 979,000 pesos (£195,800). According to reports the Government has shown itself disposed to favour the development of the movement by legislative enactment.



AUSTRALIA.

Area (including Tasmania), close on three million square miles. Population (at the census of 1911), 4,455,000, exclusive of full-blooded aborigines. With an area four-fifths that of Europe, and a population approximately that of Ireland, Australia is unmistakably a continent with an immense vista of developments stretching far ahead into the future, which will be all the better realised by noting that Victoria (the smallest state) embraces an area rather larger than Great Britain, and a population rather less than that of Liverpool and Manchester combined; that New South Wales, with a popula-

tion just exceeding a third that of Ireland, is ten times the size of the Emerald Isle; that Queensland, with a population less than that of Manchester, is three times as large as France; that South Australia, with a population less than that of Leeds, contains double the area of Spain; that Western Australia, with a population about equal to that of Bradford (in Yorkshire), is four times as large as Austria-Hungary; and that the Northern Territory combines the population of a large-sized English village with an area four and a half times the dimensions of Italy.

WITH a whole continent as the sphere of operations, under the conditions of an absolute democracy and of a general standard of living higher than that of any country in the Old World, co-operation in the Australian Commonwealth has a future before it rich in possibilities. Meanwhile, though the distributive movement is still in its infancy, the fact that the organising stage has begun shows that co-operators are looking ahead. In this regard New South Wales has shown itself the pacemaker for Australia by the establishment of a Co-operative Wholesale at Newcastle a little over three years ago for the benefit of the New South Wales societies, some two or three score in number. In Adelaide, moreover, a campaign is on foot with the object of founding a Co-operative Wholesale, as well as a co-operative organ, for the societies of South Australia. Add to this that a movement has been started for the holding of the first Commonwealth Co-operative Congress, the outcome of which may be the foundation of a Co-operative Union for all the distributive societies in Australia, and it will be seen that the forward movement is distinctly in evidence.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

As regards agrarian co-operation, which has made considerable progress of late years, Victoria takes the lead. To quote the words of the Australian delegate to the Swansea Congress: "With regard to butter there has been an enormous development on co-operative lines, first with regard to the co-operative butter factory, and, secondly, with regard to the marketing, especially in Europe, of farmers' products of all kinds. In New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and New Zealand there are societies of the latter character with turnovers running into millions. Some of these divide the profits analogously to the Rochdale plan; others, although registered as joint-stock companies, preserve their co-operative character by limiting the amount of capital any one shareholder can hold. There is also a co-operative wool-selling association, whilst there are several co-operative associations amongst the fruit farmers."

The fact that the farmers of Westralia three years ago formed a union, after two previous but unsuccessful attempts, forms a further token of the general trend of developments.



BURMAH.

Burmah, a country as large as Spain and Portugal combined, has been a British possession since 1886, and contains a population of approximately 12½ millions. Pagodas and ricefields

are two salient features of the country, which, to a considerable extent, is according to Western notions in an undeveloped state.

URBAN co-operation is still in its infancy in Burmah, as shown by the statistics recording 40 societies for 1914, 16 out of the 40 being composed of employés.

AGRARIAN CO-OPERATION.

Agrarian co-operation has made considerable progress, the figures for 1914 showing an increase of agricultural credit societies from 691 to 976 in the course of twelve months, coupled with an increase of membership from 17,000 to 24,000, and an increase of share capital from 2 $\frac{4}{5}$ lakhs to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees, the process of linking up being attested likewise by the existence of 67 unions embracing 770 societies, as compared with 43 unions embracing 486 societies the year before; whilst the financial organisation of credit was further shown by four credit banks, two of which—the Upper Burmah Central Bank at Mandalay and the Pakokku Central Bank—take the lead. Of co-operative sales societies (for the disposal of rice, wheat, and cotton) there were nine, whilst cattle insurance societies showed an increase from 33 to 57 in the space of three months. Two co-operative tenancy societies, established in Lower Burmah for the purpose of acquiring land for cultivation, constitute a further development.



INDIA.

The Indian Empire, which includes Burmah, the Federated Malay States, and other protectorates, as well as India, covers an area of 1,802,657 square miles, and it embraces a population of over 315 millions. In Hindostan, the most picturesque land of the East, where the most ancient of civilisations jostles with the most modern, the raising of the standard

of living amongst the teeming millions (with whom the means of living are represented by the barest necessities of life) constitutes a problem requiring the combined efforts of the statesman, the social reformer, and the people themselves.

In this connection the rapid progress of co-operation constitutes a feature of no small encouragement.

IN adaptation to the needs of the country, co-operation in India is, above all things, agrarian in character. The extent to which the movement has developed in respective areas is shown as follows:—

Province.	Number of Societies.	Membership.	Capital.
Madras	1,600	119,187	940,000
Bombay.....	836	86,225	545,000
Bengal.....	1,992	107,118	730,000
Behar and Orissa	1,087	54,647	240,000
United Provinces	2,962	119,273	780,000
Punjaub	3,337	159,170	1,200,000
Burmah	1,489	39,111	545,000
Central Provinces	2,297	46,150	480,000
Other Parts (inclusive of Native States)	1,727	93,588	420,000
	17,327	824,469	5,880,000

Thus, the Punjaub takes the foremost place in every respect—in the number of societies, collective membership, and amount of capital, as well as in the proportion of capital owned by the societies, *i.e.*, 47 per cent., as compared with an average of 30 per cent. for the total number of societies in the provinces as a whole. Central co-operative credit banks in different areas constitute the source of supplies in cases of need, and the system is also State aided to the extent of a loan of some £10,000 from the Government.

In view of the supreme needs of the Indian cultivator, the development of co-operation amongst the agrarian population, first and foremost, has naturally been the primary consideration, and in this connection the Government enactments of 1904 and 1912 must be regarded as of supreme importance. How rapidly co-operation has spread among the agrarian population of India may be seen from figures given in the *Economist* :—

	Number of Societies.	Total Membership.	Total Capital. £
1907	843	90,000	160,000
1912	8,177	400,000	2,200,000
1915	17,327	824,469	5,880,000

Thus, in the first five years the number of societies showed nearly a tenfold increase, whilst the more than doubling of them in the next three years bears witness no less to the onflow of the tide of progress.



JAPAN.

Area, 148,456 square miles, or $1\frac{2}{3}$ times the size of Great Britain. Population, 54 millions, or an average of 296 per square mile. Mediæval art, spade culture, and a recent industrial development may be said to form the most salient features of the Japanese Empire.

A RECORD of 11,509 societies, according to the available statistics, is indicative of the great advance of agrarian co-operation during the last decade. The ramifications and combinations in the sphere of agrarian co-operation are shown by the following figures: 3,015 credit societies, 234 sales societies, 535 purchasing societies, and 133 productive societies. Next come the societies organised for varied activities: 141 productive and sales societies, 37 productive and purchasing societies, 230 purchasing, sales, and productive societies, 400 credit and sales societies, and 2,582 credit and purchasing societies. The societies are increasing at the rate of several hundreds per year.

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EXCESS PROFITS DUTY.

THIS was first imposed in the Finance Act (No. 2), 1915, and seems to have been inspired from two sources: the passing of the Munitions Act earlier in that year, and the obvious fact that large unwonted profits were being made in many cases. The Munitions Act limited profits divisible, among other things, to one-fifth larger than the standard, and the standard was declared to be the average profits of the two years of the concern before the war. By the Finance Act of 1916 this munitions levy, or the excess profits of munition works, defined in 1915, became, along with Excess Mineral Rights Duty, virtually merged in and accounted for as Excess Profits Duty.

The *Excess Profits Duty* was declared to be a duty on profits which, in any period after August 4th, 1914, exceeded, by more than £200, the pre-war standard of profits. The pre-war standard, on the analogy of the munitions levy, was declared to be the average profits of the three last pre-war years, or the percentage standard declared applicable to the capital of a concern; the statutory percentage being 6 per cent. in the case of a corporate business, and 7 per cent. in other cases, subject to adjudication by a board of referees in special cases. (New businesses and others have been awarded percentages up to 14 per cent.) The "accounting period" within which profits are to be computed shall be a year from such a date as may be arranged with the Commissioners of the Inland Revenue.

CO-OPERATIVE "PROFITS."

The *trades or businesses* to which Excess Profits Duty *applies* are of any description, in the United Kingdom, *except* husbandry, offices or employment, and professions, but including agents on commission, who are not commercial travellers paid at a fixed sum. Both those included and those excepted are subject to sharp remark. Unquestionably, war profits were the motive of this legislation, but it should be observed that the duty applies to *all* excess profits, whether they can be referred to the war or not. The duty applies to all profits also without a definition of such profits, except that they shall be in excess of those of the pre-war period. Hence, co-operative societies have been adjudged to be liable to the duty, though that duty is said, officially, to be chargeable "by reference to profits which are computed on income tax principles," and co-operative societies have not been liable under the Income Tax Acts. Unquestionably, too, the Treasury meant to include co-operative societies when drafting this Act in 1915, or else they would have been

included among "businesses" excepted. This matter is the more remarkable in that "husbandry" is excepted specifically, though it is plain farmers have made excess profits, and profits arising out of the war. It is yet a moot question how "profits" should be defined, and, particularly, whether sums paid in dividends to co-operators can be fairly regarded as profits of a business.

In assessing profits under Excess Profits Duty some statutory allowances are made in addition to depreciation of assets, such as are allowed for income tax purposes. Those allowances will be similar to those allowed under the Income Tax Acts; but, under sec. 40 (3) of the Finance Act, 1915, special relief is granted also for postponement of renewals and repairs on account of war, exceptional depreciation of assets, and for special plant provided which will not be required after the war. Similar purchases of machines, &c., obsolete machinery, and depreciation of buildings, &c., are considered in making these allowances on gross profits.

The *yield* of the Excess Profits Duty has been very remarkable. The Finance Act (No. 2), 1915, was not passed until December, so that in the financial year 1915-16, ending with March, little was done, and only £140,000 was paid into the Exchequer from this source. In the year 1916-17 the revenue thus largely postponed (for, as we have seen, Excess Profits Duty was payable after August 4th, 1914) was paid in, and though the Chancellor of the Exchequer had estimated for £86,000,000 only, some £139,920,000 was paid into the Treasury in 1916-17. He now expects to receive £200,000,000 during the current financial year 1917-18. It is clear that a most powerful source of revenue has been tapped effectually, and, subject to the remarks upon some aspects of the incidence made above, this new "war impost" has been approved generally.

RATE OF CHARGE.

The *Rate of Charge* must now be added. When imposed in 1915 the rate of charge was 50 per cent. of the excess profits, less £200; then, in 1916-17, the rate was made 60 per cent; and, by the Act of 1917, the charge for 1917-18 will be at the rate of 80 per cent. The £200,000,000 expected to accrue this year includes much of the arrears unpaid since the duty was imposed.

Within two months of the close of an accounting period it is the duty of every person to inform the Commissioners of Inland Revenue of liability regarding this duty.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

THE UNITED KINGDOM.

COUNTRIES.	Area in Sq. Miles.	How Acquired by England.	Date.	Population.
England	58,575	Conquest	1282	34,050,221
Wales		Union	1603	2,030,271
Scotland	30,443	Conquest	1172	4,760,904
Ireland	32,373			4,390,219
Total	121,391			45,221,615

BRITISH DOMINIONS.

EUROPE:				
Gibraltar	2	Conquest	1704	20,000
Malta, &c.	120	Treaty Cession	1814	211,500
ASIA:				
Empire of India	1,900,000	Conquest	Begun 1757	315,000,000
Ceylon	25,365	Transfer from E. India Co.	1858	
Cyprus	3,584	Treaty Cession	1801	
Aden and Socotra	10,460	Convention with Turkey	1878	
Straits Settlements	1,660	(Aden) Conquest	1839	
Other Malay States	14,200	Treaty Cession	1785-1824	
Hong-Kong	390	Treaty Cession	1909	
Borneo and Sarawak	85,000	Treaty Cession	1841	
		Cession	1877	
AFRICA:				
Cape Colony	277,000	Treaty Cession	1588, 1814	2,600,000
Natal	35,400	Annexation	1843	1,200,000
Transvaal	110,500	Conquest	1900	1,700,000
Orange Free State	50,400	Conquest	1900	530,000
St. Helena	47	Conquest	1673	3,600
Ascension	78	Annexation	1815	200
Sierra Leone	34,000	Settlement	1787	1,100,000
Gold Coast, &c.	120,000	Treaty Cession	1872	1,500,000
Mauritius, &c.	1,063	Conquest and Cession	1810, 1814	400,000
Nigeria	340,000	Conquest and Cession	1850-1900	18,000,000
Rhodesia	450,000	Conquest and Cession	1890-1900	1,750,000
British East Africa, &c.	520,000	Conquest and Cession	1870-1890	9,000,000
AMERICA:				
Ontario	407,250	Conquest	1759-60	2,523,500
Quebec	706,350	Conquest	1759-60	2,003,000
New Brunswick	28,000	Treaty Cession	1763	352,000
Nova Scotia	21,400	Conquest	1627	492,500
Manitoba	252,000	Settlement	1813	455,000
British Columbia	355,900	Transfer to Crown	1858	400,000
Yukon	207,100	Charter to Company	1670	8,000
North-West Territories	1,240,000	Charter to Company	1670	17,200
Alberta	255,300	Charter to Company	1670	375,000
Saskatchewan	251,700	Charter to Company	1670	492,500
Prince Edward Island	2,184	Conquest	1745	94,000
Newfoundland and Labrador	163,000	Treaty Cession	1713	245,000
British Guiana	90,300	Conquest and Cession	1803-1814	310,000
British Honduras	8,600	Conquest	1798	50,000
Jamaica	4,207	Conquest	1655	850,000
Trinidad and Tobago	1,870	Conquest	1797	350,000
Barbadoes	166	Settlement	1605	200,000
Bahamas	4,400	Settlement	1629	60,000
Bermuda	19	Settlement	1612	20,000
AUSTRALASIA:				
New South Wales	310,000	Settlement	1788	1,700,000
Victoria	85,000	Settlement	1832	1,370,000
South Australia	380,000	Settlement	1836	420,000
Queensland	670,500	Settlement	1824	625,000
Western Australia	976,000	Settlement	1828	300,000
Tasmania	26,215	Settlement	1803	194,000
New Zealand	104,760	Purchase	1845	1,100,000
Fiji	7,440	Cession from the Natives	1874	130,000
Papua (British New Guinea)	90,540	Annexation	1884	360,000

Estimates of area and present population are by Whitaker. The entire population of the Empire, according to the estimates of Whitaker, is 434,286,650, and the total area 13,123,712 square miles, of which 121,512 are in Europe, 2,187,550 in Asia, 3,618,245 in North America, 8,600 in Central America, 12,300 in the West Indies, 97,800 in South America, and 3,214,685 in Australasia.

THE CAMPAIGN OF CONTROL.

In the following pages is a concise history of the changes in the control of raw material, food, &c., since the appointment of a Food Controller.

1916.
Dec. 10.—Lord Devonport appointed Food Controller.
" 18.—Board of Trade Order regulating meals in hotels, restaurants, and eating houses came into force.
1917.
Jan. 1.—Price of railway tickets raised by 50 per cent.: contract tickets excepted.
" 1.—War bread makes its advent.
" 5.—Official announcement that the Government has taken over the control of maize in the country, following on the control of wheat and flour.
" 8.—Food Controller fixes maximum prices for wheat (60s. per quarter of 50lbs.), oats (38s. 6d. per quarter of 336lbs.), and potatoes (115s. and 130s. per ton according to date of delivery).
" 11.—Six new Food Orders issued, viz.:—Manufacture of Flour and Bread Order, 1917; Wheat (Restriction) Order, 1917; Feeding of Game Order, 1917; Sugar (Confectionery) Order, 1917; Milk (use in Chocolates) Order, 1917; Oats (export from Ireland) Order, 1917.
" 22.—Maximum Prices Order for seed potatoes.
" 27.—Three new Food Orders issued, viz.:—Price of Milk Order, 1917; Order commanding returns of stocks of malt and barley to be made not later than February 17th; Order commanding returns of rice to arrive to be made to Royal Commission on Wheat Supplies on or before February 1st.
" 27.—Lord Devonport appointed Chairman of Sugar Commission in succession to Mr. Mc.Kenna.
" 29.—Second Order regarding the milling of flour came into force.
- Feb. 1.—Order requiring spirits not to be sold unless reduced to 30 degrees under proof.
" 3.—Lord Devonport proclaims his voluntary rationing scheme, fixing 4lbs. of bread (or 3lbs. of flour), 2½lbs. of meat, and ½lb. of sugar as the weekly maximum per individual.
" 13.—Questions asked in the House of Commons with regard to the unpatriotic action of various large tea companies in raising the price of tea and forestalling the Budget.
- Feb. 14.—Board of Trade announcement that the State will take possession of all coal mines in the United Kingdom for the period of the war, in addition to those in South Wales already taken over. Mr. Guy Calthrop (general manager of the L. & N.-W. Ry.) is made Coal Controller.
" 21.—Commotion raised by the Prime Minister's announcement with regard to the prohibition of imports in teas. In Mincing Lane on the afternoon of the speech prices jump nearly 2d. per lb.
" 23.—The Prime Minister (Mr. Lloyd George) announces the Government's plan of operations for coping with the food problem by the prohibition of imports of apples, tomatoes, aerated mineral waters, foreign teas, coffee, and cocoa; the restriction of imports of timber, paper, leather, boots, raw hides, wines, and brandy. Farmers to be guaranteed minimum prices for wheat and oats for six years. Guaranteed price for potatoes for the coming season 86 per ton. Agricultural rent not to be raised without the Board of Agriculture's consent, and powers to be given to the Board to enforce cultivation.
" 24.—Manufacture of Flour and Bread Order No. 2 issued.
- Mar. 3.—Canals taken under Government control.
" 11.—Newspaper contents bills disappear (except at places of publication) by Board of Trade Order.
" 12.—Manufacture of No. 2 war flour prohibited. New bread regulations come into operation, making sale by weight compulsory, and forbidding the sale of bread till at least 12 hours old. Sale of currant, sultana, or milk bread prohibited, as well as the use of sugar. Night work of operative bakers stopped.
" 16.—The Food Controller announces his having come to an arrangement with the tea associations, with the result that on and after May 1st tea will be sold retail at 2s. 2d. and 2s. 4d. per lb. upwards.
" 20.—Potato shortage becomes acute and Lord Devonport makes an appeal for special economy on the part of the well-to-do.

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- Mar. 22.—Lord Devonport announces in the House of Lords that a National Food Economy Campaign is to be conducted forthwith.
- „ 23.—Serious complaints in the House of Commons with regard to the lack of system in the supply and distribution of food.
- „ 26.—Order forbidding the retail sale of No. 2 war flour comes in force.
- April 1.—Brewing restricted to 70 per cent. of the current output.
- „ 2.—New Maximum Prices Order concerning potatoes comes into operation. The farmer to receive £10 per ton instead of £9, the wholesaler £11. 10s. instead of £10. 10s., and the retailer to sell at 1½d. per lb. instead of 1¼d.
- „ 15.—New Public Meals Order comes into operation enforcing a scale of allowance on boarding houses (with 10 bedrooms and over), clubs, restaurants, and eating houses, when any meal served costs more than 1s. 3d. without beverages.
- „ 16.—Maximum Prices Order issued for wheat, barley, and oats of the previous year's harvest. Prices not to exceed 78s. per quarter (of 480lbs.) for wheat, 65s. per quarter (of 400lbs.) for barley, or 55s. per quarter (of 312lbs.) for oats. Stocks of barley to be placed at the disposal of the Food Controller.
- „ 23.—Official announcement that Sunday labour in controlled works is to be abolished.
- „ 25.—Order relating to ornamental cakes, fancy bread, and pastry comes into operation. The making and selling of muffins, crumpets, tea cakes, fancy bread, or light or fancy pastries in clubs is entirely forbidden; and restrictions are imposed in the use of sugar and wheaten flour so far as the making of cakes, buns, scones, and biscuits is concerned. At the same time tea shops and eating houses are rationed in respect of breadstuffs and cakes by the prohibition from serving any customer with more than 2oz. of bread or permitted cake between the hours of 3 and 6 p.m.
- „ 29.—The Wheat, Rye, and Rice (Restrictions) Order comes into operation. The use of wheat and rye, except for the purpose of seed or manufacture of flour, is forbidden; the prohibition also extending to the use of rice and flour obtained from wheat, rye, and rice, except for making articles suitable for human food. Waste of any kind in the commodities specified being likewise strictly forbidden.
- May 1.—Maximum Prices Order for chocolates comes into force. Retailers not to charge more than 3d. per oz. or 1s. per quarter. The maximum price to include the cost of the box.
- „ 1.—Food Controller announces that he has taken over all consignments of Burmah peas and beans for this country at the price of £37 per ton.
- „ 9.—Order comes into force restricting the use of maize, barley, and oats and their products to purposes of seed or human and animal food, and also limiting the use of tapioca, sago, manioc, and arrowroot to human food.
- „ 11.—The *London Gazette* announces new restrictions on the use of petrol.
- „ 25.—The Food Controller appoints a committee to acquire, control, and distribute stocks of cured fish, imported or otherwise.
- „ 30.—Maximum Retail Prices Order for peas, beans, and imported cheese. Butter beans to be retailed at 10d. per lb. to the end of June, at 9d. during July, and 8d. thereafter. Imported cheese (requisitioned by the Food Controller) to be retailed at 1s. 4d. per lb.
- „ 30.—Announcement of Board of Trade Order to take control of stocks of tobacco, manufactured and unmanufactured, and to fix maximum prices. The appointment of a Board of Control to administer the Order is also announced.
- June 15.—Lord Rhondda appointed Food Controller *vice* Lord Devonport, resigned.
- „ 18.—The new Food Controller outlines his intended policy, and declares that “the man who seeks to profit by the necessities of his country at this hour of her peril . . . is nothing short of a black-mailer, and must be treated as such.”
- July 7.—Last day for making returns of cotton stocks at mills, railways, &c.
- „ 13.—Lord Rhondda issues the 1917 Crop (Restriction) Order, prohibiting the dealing in the new corn and potato crops without a permit.
- Aug. 1.—Lord Rhondda recommends local authorities to consider the advisability of appointing

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- a representative of the co-operative movement as a member of the Food Control Committee, to represent the consumers' interests, even though it has been decided not to include trade representatives on the committee.
- Aug. 1.—Under the Flour Mills Order No. 2, the Food Controller takes control of all the smaller mills, particulars as to which have to be sent in by the 7th of the month.
- „ 1.—The Board of Agriculture Technical Committee estimates the cost of growing an acre of wheat in 1917 at £10. 8s. 6d., as compared with £8. 7s. 6d. in 1916, and £7. 7s. 11d. in 1913.
- „ 7.—The Corn Production Bill passes the third reading by 108 votes to 14, the contingent liabilities for the British taxpayer being estimated at £96,000,000, without any assurance of additional production or certainty that rents won't be raised.
- „ 15.—Grain Prices Order issued, establishing maximum prices for wheat, rye, oats, and barley.
- „ 27.—Official notice issued to retailers prohibiting the sale of sugar after October 1st, except by those holding certificates of registration granted by the local Food Control Committees.
- „ 27.—The Food Controller issues a notice urging that the interests of the consumer should be the first consideration to be borne in mind by local authorities when appointing Food Committees. Lord Rhondda therefore asks local authorities to consider the desirability of appointing a co-operative representative as a member of the Food Control Committee to represent the consumers' interests, even though it has been decided not to include trade representatives on the committee.
- „ 29.—Order forbidding the import of bacon, hams, and lard (other than neutral lard), except under licence.
- „ 30.—Maximum Prices Order for importers of bacon, hams, and lard.
- Sept. 3.—Maximum Prices Orders come in force for meat and cheese, and in a couple of days English beef drops 9d. per stone at Smithfield Market, London, and mutton, lamb, and pork 4d. per stone. In the matter of meat, retailers are empowered to add 2½d. per lb. to the wholesale price, and no more, or otherwise 20 per cent., whichever happens to be the lesser figure.
- Sept. 10.—Maximum Prices Order for butter comes into effect, the retailer being restricted to the addition of 2½d. per lb. on the wholesale cost plus ¼d. per lb. extra to cover credit sales and cost of delivery.
- „ 10.—Maximum Coal Prices Order scheduling coal rates for wholesalers, who become empowered to add from 3d. to 1s. 3d. and 2s. per ton, and no more, to the producers' price according to bulk and character of service. Transport charges extra.
- „ 15.—Potatoes Order comes into force prescribing a minimum growers' price of £6 per ton. Further provisions determined for October 1st.
- „ 16.—Traders' campaign against the Meat Order begins. At a mass meeting of retail meat traders of the United Kingdom, held at Westminster, the terms of the Meat Order are denounced and the Food Controller is subsequently interviewed. Lord Rhondda points to the competition for cattle as a factor in the raising of prices, and tells the deputation that the Meat Order will be strictly carried out.
- „ 17.—The new Bread Order comes into operation whereby 9d. becomes the retail price of the 4lb. loaf.
- „ 20.—Another batch of orders, embracing pickled herrings, French butter, and all British-made cheese. The Pickled Herrings Order fixes maximum prices for fish curers, and allows wholesalers another 10 per cent. The maximum first-hand price prescribed for French fresh rolls of butter (ex port) is 26s., and for French Paris (unsalted, ex port) is 236s. per cwt. The maximum first-hand prices of specified cheeses are fixed to come into operation partly on October 1st, and fully on November 1st.
- „ 21.—Maximum price scheduled for American and Canadian bacon becomes binding on importers, manufacturers, and curers.
- „ 24.—Prices of cattle and meat at Birkenhead market show a reduction of 1½d. to 2d. per lb. compared with previous week.
- „ 25.—Reported serious advances in freight charges of cattle from

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Ireland, shipping companies having increased charges to the extent of 3s. 9d. per head for cattle and 1s. 9d. per head for sheep, the advances being equivalent to about 40 per cent. and 75 per cent. respectively.

- Sept. 26.—Maximum retail prices schedule for matches issued. Cheapest brands not to exceed 7½d. per doz. boxes, 2d. for three boxes, or ¾d. for one box.
- Oct. 1.—Milk Maximum Prices Order comes into operation fixing producers' prices at 1s. 5½d. per imperial gallon during October, at 1s. 7½d. during November, and 1s. 9d. from end of November to end of March.
- .. 1.—Potatoes Order takes effect, controlling the trade at all stages. Maximum growers' price fixed at £6. 10s. per ton; wholesale and retail charges also fixed, and registration for dealers, both wholesale and retail, obligatory.
- .. 1.—Sugar (Registration of Retailers) Order comes in force. The holding of certificates of registration from the local Food Committee obligatory on the part of all retailers in sugar.
- .. 1.—Maximum first-hand price of all whole-milk British-made cheese fixed at 137s. per cwt., Stilton and Wensleydale excepted, the first-hand price of which to be not less than 1s. 7d. per lb., and whole-milk Caerphilly cheese, which shall be 124s. per cwt.
- .. 2.—Maximum prices of Irish butter adjusted, British-made butter brought under control, and scheduled prices commence.
- .. 5.—Bread (Use of Potatoes) Order issued, empowering the utilisation of potatoes in the manufacture of bread to the extent of 1lb. of the former to 7lbs. of the latter.
- .. 9.—Orders issued (1) precluding (except under licence) the manufacture of bread, biscuits, and rusks for sausages and blackpudding making; (2) authorising the serving of a meal between 9 p.m. and 2 a.m. to persons putting up for the night in hotels, inns, and boarding houses, providing that the hours between midnight and 2 a.m. shall be deemed to form part of the previous day; (3) authorising milk retailers to sell milk for resale, provided that the price does not exceed the retail price of milk in the area, and that the sale to any one buyer does not exceed eight

imperial gallons per day. The appointment of Mr. Wilfred Buckley (chairman of the National Clean Milk Society) as Director of Milk Supplies is also announced.

- Oct. 14.—Food Controller takes over all shipments of currants and sultanas to the United Kingdom.
- .. 15.—Prices of house coal raised 2s. 6d. per ton, or 1½d. per cwt., to cover cost of increased wages to miners.
- .. 17.—New Beer Order fixed maximum prices in public bars at 4d. and 5d. per pint for certain varieties.
- .. 25.—Coal traders forbidden to supply quantities of a ton, or more, to householders whose stock exceeds a month's requirements.
- .. 27.—Readjustments in prices of Colonial and imported butters owing to shipments from New Zealand.
- Nov. 1.—Maximum first-hand price of all whole-milk British-made cheese (Stilton, Wensleydale, and Caerphilly excepted) shall not be less than 142s. per cwt., and whole-milk Caerphilly cheese 129s. per cwt.
- .. 1.—Winter prices of milk take effect; maximum price, 8d. per quart.
- .. 4.—Order in force for regulating supplies of sugar to manufacturers, caterers, and institutions.
- .. 5.—Butter Prices Amending Order, allowing 4s. per cwt. profit to small wholesalers on purchases not exceeding 56lbs. Retail profit on blended butter limited to 2½d. per lb. for 1lb. rolls and bricks, and at 3d. per lb. for lesser quantities.
- .. 19.—Minimum price of £6 per ton for potatoes abolished, owing to the potato plethora. Producers to be paid the difference out of public funds, as per Lord Devonport's pledge. Estimated cost to country, 10 millions sterling.
- .. 19.—Importers, curers, and refiners of ham, bacon, and lard brought under control and profits limited.
- .. 23.—Wholesalers of above brought under control.
- .. 26.—Retailers of above brought under control.
- Dec. 10.—Maximum retail prices of coffee fixed at 1s. 6d. per lb. for roasted, and 1s. 4d. for raw. Prices of better qualities fixed at 2s. 6d. and 2s. 4d. respectively.
- .. 31.—Sugar cards come into operation.

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